Organisational Psychology Masters Thesis

Title: 'An Investigation into the Quality of Work Life (QWL) of Teachers from Disadvantaged Schools in the Cape Town Area'

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Abstract

This research project investigated the levels, determinants and outcomes of the Quality of Work Life (QWL) of teachers from disadvantaged schools in the Cape Town area (N=117). Statistical analysis of the results indicated that the teachers experience a moderate QWL. Significant predictors of job satisfaction, and hence QWL included Support, Environmental Risk, and Future Prospects. The content analysis of teacher responses to the open-ended question, which was added to the Teacher-Specific Version of the Leiden Quality of Work life Questionnaire (LQWQ), also provided support for the importance and prominence of support. A secondary goal of the study was to compare the QWL of teachers from disadvantaged schools differing in degree of impoverishment. Results revealed that only the QWL determinant of future prospects was significantly different across two types of disadvantaged schools. However, statistical analyses did reveal differences in terms of the relationships between QWL determinants, and the outcomes of QWL across the two samples. The implications of the research for the various stakeholders, including teachers, principals, education departments, and the government are discussed.

Chapter 1

Introduction

The process of democratisation in South Africa has impacted significantly upon our education system, and is reflected by fundamental changes that have taken place at both a macro and micro level (Myburgh & Poggenpoel, 2002). Some of these education-specific changes include the condensing of 19 education departments into one national department and nine provincial departments, the abolition of corporal punishment in schools, the conversion of mono-cultural schools into multicultural schools, and the rationalisation, retrenchment and redistribution of teachers (Myburgh & Poggenpoel, 2002; Ngidi & Sibaya, 2002). Many of these changes, the most significant of which is the newly adopted democratic approach to education through the South African Schools Act of 1996, are aimed at reconstructing a society and an education system that will create excellent conditions for teaching and learning (Matsitsa, 1995). Consequently, the 'working lives' of teachers will be affected, which is a central concern of organisational psychology (Louw & Edwards, 1993).

Whilst ex-education minister Kadar Asmal (2002) asserts that these educational changes have brought about progress, researchers suggest that the rapid transformation in the education system and in schools has resulted in a number of challenges for all South African teachers (Myburgh & Poggenpoel, 2002). Teachers have become confused as to what their roles are, and are consequently experiencing stress related problems (Myburgh & Poggenpoel, 2002; Ngidi & Sibaya, 2002). It is, however, plausible to assume that these difficulties are more significant for teachers from disadvantaged schools due to the additional pressures and challenges they face. Specifically, these teachers encounter consistently poor grade 12 results, high rates of absenteeism, student tardiness, low class attendance, a lack of training in outcomes-based education delivery, a lack of material resources, high pupil-teacher ratios, as well as the exacerbating effect of HIV/AIDS (Botha, 2002, Mashile & Mellet, 1996; Pager, 1996; Masondo, 2004; Nxumalo, 1995). Furthermore, these teachers are working in schools that are located in township communities, which are situated in violent environments characterised by murder, armed robbery and alcohol and drug abuse, that impact negatively on teachers, students and schools (Mashile & Mellet, 1996; Zulu, Urbani, van der Merwe, & van der Walt, 2004).

The Importance and Relevance of the Research

In light of these additional challenges and pressures faced by teachers from disadvantaged schools, concern can be raised about their quality of working lives (QWL). Within the educational literature

QWL is understood as involving the overall impression that teachers have about their work, and incorporates the judgements they make about the degree to which their work is satisfying or not (Hart, 1994). Consequently, the many additional pressures and challenges they face will influence the overall impression that teachers' from disadvantaged schools have about their work. This is because many of these challenges are intrinsically related to the determinants of QWL, which will become evident during the review of the literature in chapter 2, and hence will affect the acquisition of a high QWL. This is important, as QWL is associated with many beneficial outcomes for all occupational groups. These include increased organisational commitment, job satisfaction, job involvement, effort, performance effectiveness and productivity, loyalty, levels of morale, and attendance (Efraty & Sirgy, 1990; Kerce & Booth- Kewly, 1993), all of which are beneficial in the context in which teachers from disadvantaged schools find themselves. Concomitantly, it is important to bear in mind that these outcomes also play an important role in determining the quality of education delivered to students (Efraty & Sirgy, 1990; Kerce & Booth- Kewly, 1993; Steyn & Van Wyk, 1999). In support of this, Asmal and James (2001) assert that improving the quality of education depends to a large extent on the ability, and commitment of teachers.

The relevance of the research topic for the field of organisational psychology was suggested previously. The many educational changes have impacted upon teachers' working lives, which is the focus of organisational psychology (Louw & Edwards, 1993). Furthermore, and in light of the objective of organisational psychology, which is to focus upon creating working environments that encourage job performance and job satisfaction (Louw & Edwards, 1993), the relevance is again highlighted.

Research Objectives

The introduction has demonstrated that it is beneficial to investigate the quality of work life (QWL) of teachers from disadvantaged schools in the Cape Town area. Furthermore, the discussion established the importance of focussing upon the determinants and outcomes of QWL, in order to better understand QWL amongst teachers. The current studies' research aims therefore reflect this viewpoint, and are set out to achieve understanding the QWL amongst teachers from disadvantaged schools in this way.

The objectives of this research are divided into two categories. The first category, which is considered the most important, encompasses a number of research objectives that focus upon the full sample of teachers emanating from disadvantaged schools in the Cape Town area (N = 117).

Full Sample Objectives

- The first goal of this study is to determine quality of work life (QWL) levels amongst a sample of teachers from disadvantaged schools in the Cape Town area.

- The second goal of the study is to examine the relationships between QWL determinants (i.e. task variety, support, job insecurity, role stress), and the outcomes of QWL (i.e. job satisfaction, turnover intention, and organisational commitment), with the intent of being able to determine if and how each determinant affects the relevant outcomes (i.e. Do positive or negative relationships exist?)

- The third goal is an extension of the second, and seeks to determine which QWL antecedents are the most important predictors of QWL outcomes amongst teachers from disadvantaged schools.

The second category encompasses its' own set of objectives that focus upon the two subsamples that constitute the full sample. Each subsample represents a grouping of disadvantaged schools differing in degree of impoverishment.

Independent Subsample Objectives

- The primary goal in relation to the two independent subsamples is to determine whether any significant mean differences exist, in terms of the determinants and outcomes of QWL, across the schools differing in degree of impoverishment.

- The second goal is to examine the relationships between QWL determinants and outcomes within each subsample.

- The third goal is to determine which QWL antecedents are the most important predictors of QWL outcomes within each sub-sample.

Setting the Context

This section presents an overview of the South African educational context and its associated challenges. This serves the goal of setting the context in which the construct of quality of work life (QWL) will be investigated. Furthermore, review of these challenges is essential as they reflect the difficulties that may be experienced in developing a high QWL amongst teachers from disadvantaged schools. Concomitantly, they provide justification as to why these teachers may experience low levels of morale, commitment, attendance, and performance (Botha, 2002; Lethoko, Heystek, & Maree, 2001).

Educational Challenges

Curriculum 2005: Outcomes-Based Education

When the ANC government took over power in 1994 it inherited an education system rife with problems (Botha, 2002). The quality of education received specifically by black students was poor, and therefore change was sought in South African education (Botha, 2002). In March 1997, a new curriculum framework titled Curriculum 2005: Lifelong Learning for the Twenty- First Century, which aimed at educational transformation in South Africa, was launched (Asmal & James, 2001). Specifically, this transformation was to occur through reconceptualising the nature of teaching and learning through the adoption of an outcomes-based model (Vally & Dalamba, 1999).

The premise of Outcomes-Based Education (OBE) is that: "learners should be able to demonstrate that they understand, and can apply the desired outcomes within a certain context" (Kraak, 1999, p 41). Furthermore, it emphasises problem-solving, creativity, and critical thinking, all of which are considered necessary for the development of competent future citizens (Botha, 2002). Consequently, proponents of outcomes-based education have claimed it will lead to the provision of high quality education, and is therefore a much-needed response to the multifaceted educational difficulties faced in South Africa (Baxen & Soudien, 1999). Despite this sentiment and much optimism concerning OBE, its' implementation has been problematic. Firstly, many teachers are inadequately trained to teach in an outcomes-based manner, and this is especially true when considering historically disadvantaged schools where most are under-resourced and their teachers under-trained (Asmal & James, 2001; Botha, 2002; Motseke, 2000). Much of the blame has been placed upon the education department for having been slow with training implementation (Pretorious, 2003). Furthermore, the training dilemma

is exacerbated by the lack of financial resources available for teacher training purposes (Botha, 2002; Robinson, 2003).

Secondly, flaws amidst OBE have left some teachers confused with its requirements and consequently under the impression that seemingly obvious necessities, such as reading and writing, would not have to be taught at all (Pretorious, 2003). Such confusion is exacerbated by the difficult terminology associated with OBE, especially for teachers working within township schools who have a poor command of English (Motseke, 2000). Specifically, associated OBE concepts such as performance indicators, assessment criteria, range statement and unit standard are difficult to understand and interpret. Thirdly, the implementation of OBE places tremendous additional pressures, demands, and responsibilities upon teachers in terms of its required instruction, planning, administration, and assessment of learners' progress without emphasis being placed upon failing or passing them (Botha, 2002; Motseke, 2000; Ngidi & Sibaya, 2002). This is a challenging task for many teachers in South Africa who lack responsibly, motivation, commitment, and dedication (Botha, 2002).

The above discussion receives support from a study on educator morale in South Africa (Hayward, 2002). Specifically, it was suggested that OBE favours affluent students who have access to better resources, terminology surrounding OBE was too complex for educators, and that whilst workshops were attended there was no follow up by the department to monitor progress. This lack of monitoring was also suggested in the findings of the review committee on the implementation of Curriculum 2005, wherein it was identified that almost no ongoing support or training was offered to teachers once they returned from orientation and training workshops (Review Committee on Curriculum 2005, 2000, as cited in Robinson, 2003). Other comments pointing towards the problematic nature of OBE were that all schools should have converted to OBE simultaneously, and that the large ratio of pupils to teachers makes implementation of OBE exceedingly difficult. This highlights the difficulty faced by teachers from disadvantaged schools where often a high ratio of students to teachers is witnessed (Hayard, 2002; Lethoko, et al., 2001; Motseke, 2000; Mwamwenda, 1995; Ngidi & Sibaya, 2002; Pretorious, 2003). This high ratio of students to teachers is largely attributed to the school environment wherein a shortage of teachers exists.

The School Environment

Shortage of Teachers

There is concern in South African education about the outflow of teachers to other countries, the shortage of qualified teachers, high teacher turnover rates, and a decrease in the number of matriculants entering the teaching profession (Hayward, 2002; Hofmeyer, 2001; Lemmer & Badenhorst, 2001; Xaba, 2003).

Some of the contributing factors to teacher shortages include government policies involving the rightsizing or downsizing of teachers, voluntary severance packages, as well as early retirement and retrenchment (Ngidi & Sibaya, 2002). Since 1994, it is estimated that up to 40 000 teacher posts have been eradicated (Pretorious, 2003). Furthermore, Crewe (2000) suggests that HIV/Aids will affect teacher shortages through the loss of skilled teachers to the disease.

According to education researchers, such as Luis Crouch, commissioned to work for the Department of Education, it is estimated that existing teacher shortages together with HIV/Aids will create a shortfall of 12 000 teachers by 2005 (Pretorious, 2003). Currently, it is estimated that 12% (approximately 43 000) teachers are HIV positive (Pretorious, 2003). It is important to convey that whilst that the loss of teachers to HIV/ AIDS is a serious concern there are other ways in which HIV/Aids impacts upon a teachers' life, particularly effecting their morale and hence intention to quit the profession. This is reflected in a statement by Hall (2002) who suggests that:

> Aids…. Will have very serious consequences for the day-to-day activities of teachers in the classroom. Considerable additional demands will be made on teachers in dealing with emotional trauma experienced by children who are orphaned. Schools will be expected to be creative in the handling of the millions of orphans who are unlikely to be able to sustain themselves and their families. (p.6)

In addition to the figures above, it is suggested that South Africa has about 360 000 teachers, 35 000 of whom are underqualified (Pretorious, 2003). This figure is largely played out in rural or township schools wherein the largest number of underqualified teachers predominate (Pretorious, 2003). Although this factor alone does not explain why disadvantaged schools lack quality teaching and learning, it does much to contribute to explanations thereof (Pretorious, 2003). Furthermore, it may

partly explain the lack of professionalism in these schools in terms of absenteeism or irregular attendance of classes by teachers (Nxumalo, 1995).

Despite the severity of teacher shortages, as suggested by these figures, the Department of Education does not believe it to be a serious matter (Pretorious, 2003). This is surprising, as practical evidence, especially in disadvantaged schools, exists to support statistical claims (Hayward, 2002; Lethoko, Heystek, & Maree, 2001). This evidence comes by way of overcrowded classrooms implying high pupil to teacher ratios where teachers may be responsible for a class of up to 70 pupils (Hayard, 2002; Lethoko, Heystek, & Maree, 2001; Mwamwenda, 1995; Ngidi & Sibaya, 2002; Pretorious, 2003). The obvious assumption is that if teacher shortages, particularly in disadvantaged schools were not a problem, then pupil teacher ratios would be much lower.

Finally, a pertinent comment made by Madisha (no date), President of the South African Democratic teachers' Union sums up the problem of teacher shortages in disadvantaged schools. He stated: "People who were denied quality education by apartheid cannot even begin to catch up, as they are denied teachers" (as cited in Pretorious, 2003; p. 40).

Student Discipline

Coupled with high pupil-teacher ratios, teachers in disadvantaged schools, especially those in townships are faced with students who have acquired negative attitudes towards school (Mashile & Mellet, 1996). Most township communities are deprived communities, which are located in violent environments that impact negatively on students and their schools (Mahile & Mellet, 1996). As students growing up in violent areas they more likely to express aggression and violence more readily at a younger age, and such violence is ultimately an impediment to a culture of teaching and learning (Zulu, Urbani, van der Merve & van der Walt, 2004). Consequently, teachers find themselves working in an environment where pupils carry guns and threaten teachers, pupils belong to gangs, and where alcohol and drug abuse are common (Pretoriuos, 2003; Smith & Schalekamp, as cited in Lethoko et al., 2001).

The above translates into students lacking the motivation to learn, skipping class, as well as cheating during tests and examinations (Smith & Schalekamp, as cited in Lethoko et al., 2001). In addition, the school environment lacks discipline and there is a lack of respect for teachers (Masitsa, 1995). Similar discipline problems emerged in Hayward's (2002) study on educator morale wherein 45, 9% of

respondents viewed learner discipline as adversely impacting upon their morale. Respondent comments suggested that a total lack of discipline existed amongst learners, that shouting, backchatting, and the abuse of alcohol and dagga was common, and that the carrying of weapons by students during classes sometimes occurred (Hayward, 2002).

Caution must be heeded in terms of isolating comments such as these to disadvantaged schools. Haywards (2002) study was not confined to disadvantaged schools, but is likely to have incorporated many that were, as tentatively indicated by 48.1% of the teachers' home language being either Xhosa or Zulu. Teachers are nevertheless faced with the dilemma of trying to maintain discipline, as without it, it is impossible for effective education to take place (Venter, 2000). This assertion is congruent with the South African Constitution and the South African Schools Act (1996, Clause Eight): "A code of conduct…must be aimed at establishing a disciplined and purposeful school environment, dedicated to the improvement and maintenance of the quality of learning of the learning process."

With the abolition of corporal punishment some believe that maintaining discipline has become that much harder as there may be no other effective disciplinary measures to implement. This is in turn may exacerbate pupils' misbehaviour (Lethoko et al., 2001; Ngidi & Sibaya, 2002). Whilst several teachers support its abolition, a study examining the culture of learning in Khayelitsha secondary schools revealed that most of the interviewed teachers were in favour of corporal punishment believing it to be a necessary tool for ensuring discipline (Pager, 1996). The abolishment of corporal punishment is therefore a seemingly contested issue and an additional challenge for teachers, particularly in disadvantaged schools where violence and intimidation are more frequently witnessed. The issue of corporal punishment is further exacerbated by a lack of material resources, such as too few classrooms resulting in overcrowding and hence classroom management difficulties.

Material Resources

Throughout the history of African education the most salient disparity between blacks and whites has been the lack of resources afforded to disadvantaged schools (Pager, 1996). The present day situation is no different with poor school infrastructures, overcrowded classrooms implying too few classrooms or teachers, as well as inadequate equipment, including a shortage of learning materials such as textbooks, computers, and overhead projectors (Matsitsa, 1995; Mwamwenda, 1995; Ngidi, as cited in Ngidi & Sibaya, 2002; Pager, 1996). Furthermore, teachers find themselves working in unfavourable

working conditions where schools are dirty, and vandalized, often library and toilet facilities are either non existent or inadequate, and the availability of water and electricity is minimal (Pretorious, 2003; Steyn & Van Wyk, 1999).

A study by Steyn and Van Wyk (1999), which sought to investigate the job satisfaction perceptions of principals and teachers in urban black schools in South Africa, revealed the following comments regarding the lack of resources in these schools. Specifically, a teacher stated: "We don't have enough classes for the school and the teaching aids are lacking, especially we, who are teaching the grades (first two years of schooling), we need more teaching aids because children learn by looking" (p. 39). Furthermore, one of the principals at these schools explained how a lack of facilities at schools creates other problems. The principal stated: "We don't have a staff room where teachers relax and have their tea. We don't have a sickroom. If a child is ill, sometimes I just take a child here in the office. Parents come in and out." (p.39)

These comments fervently reflect the current situation in many disadvantaged schools in South Africa, as a consequence of disparities in financial provisions during the apartheid era (Ngidi & Sibaya, 2002). Unfortunately, the current financial situation in South African education today is no different, where a lack of financial resources exists, and bureaucratic procedures for accessing funding are evident (Robinson, 2003).

Whilst the above discussion presents a dispiriting view of disadvantaged schools, there are projects, such as the Get Ahead Project in Queenstown in the Eastern Cape, which has made the most of minimal resources by offering schooling for local children in an unused, run-down warehouse (Crankshaw, 2000). At first the warehouse had no ceilings or other necessary equipment. Despite, excessive noise levels the teachers applied themselves in such a manner so as to provide an enjoyable and stimulating educational environment wherein effective learning could take place. Accordingly, those responsible asserted that expensive buildings and modern equipment and technology are not necessary for quality education, as longs as teachers are committed and donate selfless energy in the pursuit of quality education.

Salaries

A recurring theme that emerges in research of South African teachers concerns the dissatisfaction with salaries, and the situation is no different within disadvantaged schools. In a study focussing upon job

satisfaction perceptions of principals and teachers from black urban schools, it was revealed that most teachers cited poor salaries as a source of their dissatisfaction (Steyn & Van Wyk, 1999). This finding receives support from Hayward's (2002) study of educator morale wherein many respondents viewed their salary package as unsatisfactory, inadequate, not keeping up with inflation, with perks, such as housing subsidies, and travel allowances being insufficient. In contrast to this finding, Farquharson (2002) did not find pay satisfaction to be a predicator of job satisfaction amongst teachers in disadvantaged schools, however the teachers did complain about their compensation.

It is therefore evident that poor salaries are a challenge for all teachers in South Africa particularly with respect to morale and job satisfaction. Focussing upon the starting salaries of qualified teachers most accurately depicts the severity of the problem. Specifically, in 2003 they received R78 429 a year and the only increments that had been made since 1996 were in accordance with inflation (Pretorious, 2003). This implies that teachers with many years of experience are paid the same as recent graduates. Only in 2002 were bonuses for high performing teachers as well as 'hardship bonuses' for teachers working in rural areas introduced (Pretorious, 2003).

The continued disgruntlement with teacher salaries has recently come to the fore with strikes taking place in South Africa. Schools across the country were closed as teachers' stayed away believing their only means of resolving salary issues was through drastic action (Smetherham, 2004). Specifically, unions are demanding a 7% salary increase for 2004, which must include a universal medical aid allowance with an increased contribution from government and a housing allowance (Dreyer & Smetherham, 2004). Research reveals that the effects of these strikes have been experienced in disadvantaged schools where a school in Khayelitsha had closed it doors, whilst support staff in Langa schools taught those pupils who had arrived for classes (Dreyer & Smetherham, 2004)

Stress

Studies carried out in several countries indicate that a large proportion of teachers report relatively high levels of occupational stress (Borg, 1990; Kyriacou, 1987). The situation is no different in South Africa where studies have confirmed that teachers experience similar levels of stress (Buwalda & Kok, 1991; Van Zyl & Pietersen, 1999). Consequently teachers, are experiencing stress related problems such as alcohol abuse, absenteeism, and destructive relationships between teachers and students, teachers and colleagues, and their families (Myburgh & Poggenpoel, 2002).

The sources of South African teacher stress can be attributed to the educational challenges discussed above. In summary, those factors responsible include rightsizing or downsizing, the abolishment of corporal punishment, redeployment of teachers, early retirement and retrenchment, the excessive demands placed upon teachers as a consequence of OBE, and the National qualifications Framework (NQF), as well as inadequate working conditions, and poor pupil discipline (Ngidi & Sibaya, 2002; Van Zyl & Pietersen, 1999).

The situation for teachers working in disadvantaged schools is exacerbated by comparatively worse working conditions, student violence, excessive overcrowding, and lack of learning materials and resources, as well as a lack of appropriate facilities (Ngidi & Sibaya, 2002; Pretorious, 2003).

Conclusion

This chapter aimed to achieve a number of goals. It has introduced the reader to the dissertation topic, provided justification as to the importance of the current study, and has also clearly presented the research objectives. The remainder of the chapter critically reviewed the educational challenges faced by teachers from disadvantaged schools in South Africa. This served the goal of setting the context in which the construct of quality of work life (QWL) would be investigated. Review of the South African educational challenges revealed that teachers from disadvantaged schools face tremendous additional pressures, such as encountering consistently poor grade 12 results, high rates of absenteeism, student tardiness, low class attendance, a lack of training in outcomes-based education delivery, a lack of material resources, high pupil-teacher ratios, as well as the exacerbating effect of HIV/AIDS (Botha, 2002, Mahile & Mellet, 1996; Pager, 1996; Masondo, 2004; Nxumalo, 1995). These difficulties in combination with the important outcomes, including increased organisational commitment, job satisfaction, job involvement, effort, performance effectiveness and productivity, loyalty, levels of morale, and attendance, which can be attained from teachers experiencing a high quality of work life (QWL) (Efraty & Sirgy, 1990; Kerce & Booth- Kewly, 1993), provide justification for investigating the construct amongst teachers from disadvantaged schools in the Cape Town area.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction

This chapter aims to present an in-depth, critical review of the QWL literature within both an organisational and educational context. The first section of the review focuses upon the organisational context and presents a historical and traditional overview of the construct. Included in this overview is discussion of the historical development and meaning of QWL, a presentation of the debate surrounding the synonymous usage of job satisfaction with QWL, and the operationalisation of the construct by focussing upon its' determinant and outcome variables. These discussions, which constitute the first section of the review, are largely grounded in, and based upon the primary texts that are associated with the QWL literature.

The first section also serves as a platform for the second section of the literature review, which focuses specifically upon the QWL of teachers, again reflecting upon its' antecedent and outcome variables. Exploration of the determinants and outcomes of QWL is important given that much of the current studies analytical work will involve focus upon these variables. Whilst overlap does exist between the organisational and educational literature regarding the QWL construct, and its associated determinants and outcomes, differences within these contexts are also evidenced. In particular empirical research suggests that QWL takes on different meanings for different occupations, and therefore review of both the organisational literature in the first section of the review, and the educational literature in the second section was deemed appropriate (Levine, Taylor, & Davis, 1984). Furthermore, reviewing the literature in both contexts provides a more holistic account of the construct, and also reflects its' comprehensiveness and debateable nature.

Quality of Work Life (QWL): Historical Development and Meaning

The term 'quality of working life' (QWL) was first introduced in 1972, and has since received increased attention in both a developmental and academic sense (Kolodny & Van Beinum, 1983; Nadler & Lawler, 1983). This attention resulted in QWL acquiring many different meanings, partly as a consequence of the origin and development of the term.

During the early 1970's heightened concern for industrial democracy was witnessed amongst both labour and management (Nadler & Lawler, 1983). As a consequence efforts were made to develop collaborative working relationships between the two parties by increasing worker participation in

corporate decision-making through the adoption of participative management styles (Nadler & Lawler, 1983; Suttle, 1977). Quality of working life during this period was therefore understood as an approach incorporating joint labour/management cooperative projects, which sought to improve QWL (Nadler & Lawler, 1983). Furthermore, this period gave rise to an additional definition for quality of working life, namely QWL as methods. Specifically, QWL was viewed as a set of methods, such as job enrichment and autonomous work groups, which could be used to improve work environments making them more satisfying (Nadler & Lawler, 1983).

During the 1980's QWL acquired a very broad definition in response to increased global competition. According to Nadler and Lawler (1983) QWL was viewed as being: "perceived as a panacea for coping with foreign competition, grievance problems, quality problems, low productivity, and just about everything else" (p.24). The all-encompassing nature of this definition does much to contribute to the vagueness of the concept, and has resulted in confusion as to what QWL is.

In order to reduce such confusion researchers have made attempts to provide concise working definitions of QWL (Efraty & Sirgy, 1990; Newell, 2002). Using an interactional psychology perspective, Efraty and Sirgy (1990) define QWL in terms of need satisfaction i.e. employees bring certain needs with them to the workplace, and the extent to which organisational membership satisfies these needs will result in QWL. QWL is therefore viewed as stemming from an interaction of personal and organisational factors (Efraty & Sirgy, 1990).

Concomitantly, quality of work life has been defined as a philosophy of management aimed at enhancing the dignity of all workers, introducing changes in an organisations' culture, as well as improving the physical and emotional well-being of employees (Gibson, Ivancevich & Donnelly, 1997).

More recently Newell (2002) defined the term as being used to describe: "those organizations which have recognised that it is possible and desirable, to achieve productivity alongside the satisfaction of employees" (p 40).

Finally, many view QWL as being simply a more modern term for job satisfaction, and studies focussing on QWL, as evidenced within educational contexts, often use it interchangeably and synonymously with job satisfaction (Haughey & Murphy, 1984; Putt & Springer, 1980; Steyn & Van

Wyk, 1999). This relationship between job satisfaction and QWL receives elaborated discussion in the next section.

Is There a Discernible Difference between QWL and Job Satisfaction?

Job satisfaction is the extent to which people enjoy their jobs (Spector, 1997). It is a construct comprised of a number of common facets including, appreciation, communication, co-workers, job conditions, pay, personal growth, security, as well as supervision (Gibson, Ivancevich, & Donnelly, 1997; Spector, 1997).

Review of the literature indicates the synonymous usage of job satisfaction with QWL, which is both surprising and disconcerting in light of what many prominent QWL researchers (Orpen, 1981; Suttle, 1977) have acknowledged about this relationship. It also reflects the confusion associated with distinguishing between job satisfaction and quality of work life (Pothas, 1999). Specifically, it is agreed that QWL is not merely job satisfaction, which constitutes only one of its many components (Bertrand, 1992; Coetsee, 1987; Orpen, 1981; Walton, 1973). In particular it has been suggested that QWL is a more comprehensive term differing from and being more comprehensive than job satisfaction in at least three significant ways (Orpen, 1981).

Orpen (1981) highlights that the construct of job satisfaction excludes specific reference to performance. In other words definitions of job satisfaction suggest that those employees who experience positive attitudes to their work will not necessarily perform better. This is reflected in previous research, which has indicated that the correlation between job satisfaction and performance is relatively low, and elusive in nature (Iaffaldano & Muchinsky, 1985). In contrast interpretations and understandings of QWL take cognisance of the performance/satisfaction relationship in that the quality of any individuals working life cannot be said to be high unless the person is not only satisfied with his/her job, but also does the job well (Bennis, 1966; Sofer, 1961).

A further difference between the constructs of QWL and job satisfaction is that the emphasis of job satisfaction is largely a negative one in the sense that the 'desirable state' is often understood as incorporating a reduction of dissatisfaction. In other words removing or remedying environmental deficiencies, such as improving lighting and ventilation, often results in improved job satisfaction, but only contributes minimally to a high quality of working life (Orpen, 1981). This is because for QWL to

be high emphasis must be placed not upon only removing those factors that negatively affect working life, but also upon psychological growth, which involves positive strides taken by people to improve their worlds (Orpen, 1981).

In addition, job satisfaction fails to capture the comprehensiveness of QWL in that it does not emphasise positive mental health, another significant component of QWL (Orpen, 1981). Positive mental health in this sense refers to more than just change, satisfaction, or freedom from inner stress, which is implied, in understandings of job satisfaction. From a QWL perspective positive mental health implies the above plus 'psychological growth', which can be understood as 'active efforts of people to cope with and enlarge upon, their world and perhaps even to make it more like they want it to be' (Orpen 1981, p. 45). It is this factor of 'psychological growth' according to Orpen, which perhaps more than any other factor, so emphatically distinguishes QWL from job satisfaction. More recent definitions of job satisfaction do however suggest closer links between job satisfaction and QWL in terms of 'psychological growth' than may have been previously thought. This is demonstrated by Spector (1997) who highlights personal growth as being in important facet of job satisfaction.

Whilst this discussion clearly highlights that job satisfaction cannot be equated with QWL, it is nevertheless evident that a significant relationship between the two concepts exists. Specifically, job satisfaction is a necessary yet not sufficient condition for QWL to be high (Orpen, 1981), although it has been suggested that job satisfaction is the most important indicator of the level of quality of work life (Coetsee, 1987). Concomitantly, this implies that those factors necessary for the experience of job satisfaction are also necessary for the experience of high levels of QWL. This is turn holds important implications for operationalising the term. Consideration of the determinants of job satisfaction can therefore not be ignored, regardless of context.

The next section is dedicated to operationalising QWL in terms of its determinant and outcome factors, and is divided accordingly.

Operationalisation of Quality of Work Life: Determinants and Outcomes

Apart from defining quality of work life, some scholars have operationalised the concept (Walton, 1973; Orpen, 1981; Taylor, 1978). One of the first scholars to do so was Walton (1973), and emerging from his research was the identification of a number of determinants of QWL. Walton's (1973)

research remains arguably the most comprehensive attempt to operationalise the concept, and attempts that have followed have mostly drawn from his endeavours and hence bear similarities. An example of this is Orpen (1981) who clearly adopted and extended Walton's (1973) criteria for the quality of working life, and Taylor (1978) whose investigations into the underlying structure of QWL revealed similarities to Walton's categories. What follows is therefore largely a synthesis and traditional/historical account of the determinants of QWL emerging from Walton (1973) and Orpen's (1981) findings. The works of these scholars essentially constitute the primary QWL texts upon which the subsequent sections are based. The determinants include adequate and affair compensation, safe and healthy work conditions, immediate opportunity to use and develop human capacities, future opportunity for continued growth and security, and social integration in the work organisation.

Determinants of QWL

Adequate and Fair Compensation

Research shows that the fundamental driving force behind work is to earn a living (Schreuder & Theron, 1997; Walton, 1973). It is therefore plausible that QWL is affected by the extent to which this goal is achieved (Walton, 1973). Similarly, Nirenberg (1993) cites Walton's QWL determinant of adequate and fair compensation, as a factor to consider when wishing to operationalise QWL programs. Both the factors of adequate and fair compensation are therefore considered important determinants of QWL. Difficulties are however experienced in terms of assessing what constitutes adequate compensation. This difficulty stems from the relativity of the concept in that the work situation and the particular employee concerned largely influence its operational definition (Orpen, 1981; Walton, 1973). Operationally defining 'fairness' in compensation is less challenging, and at least three ways exist to determine fairness in compensation.

Fairness can be determined through job evaluation measures, such as job ranking, job classification, and factor comparison (Schuler, 1998). These measures assist in assessing the relationship between compensation and factors, such as required training, job responsibility, intricacy of decision-making, and harmfulness of working conditions (Orpen, 1981; Walton, 1973). Concomitantly, various techniques are available to determine the supply and demand for particular skills and competencies, and for establishing average levels of compensation for these various categories, thus enabling the implementation of fair compensation levels (Schuler, 1998). Furthermore, benchmarks can be used to

determine what proportions of profits should be distributed to employees in different occupations and across different categories within these occupations (Orpen, 1981; Walton, 1973).

Other authors (Stein, 1983; Reid, 1992) have also recognised the importance of compensation in determining QWL. Stein (1983) identified pay as being one of five important components of QWL, although its categorical classification is somewhat different to Orpen (1981) and Walton (1973). Specifically, Stein includes pay under the category of external rewards, which in addition to pay includes promotion or position, and rank or status. Furthermore, Reid (1992) who evaluated the quality of work life of clothing workers confirmed Walton's (1973) proposition that compensation does indeed play a critical role in determining quality of work life, although the employees within the study did not experience fairness and adequacy of compensation. Results of the study indicated low levels of quality of work life, which confirms the importance of compensation 'adequacy' and 'fairness' in influencing QWL. Finally, additional support is provided by Newell (2002) who, whilst not alluding specifically to compensation, emphasises the importance of reward systems that take cognisance of both individual and group contribution.

Safe and Healthy Work Conditions

It is widely accepted that employees should not be exposed to working conditions that can adversely affect their physical and mental health (Orpen, 1981). Consequently, the results of employer concern, union action, and legislation have promoted favourable working conditions through focus on noise, illumination, workspace, and accident avoidance, as well as the implementation of reasonable work hours, and age limits for potential employees (Orpen, 1981; Walton, 1973).

A number of researchers agree that safe and healthy work conditions have a significant impact upon QWL (Newell, 2002; Stein, 1983; Kerce & Booth-Kewley, 1993; Bertrand, 1992; Harrison, 2000). Newell (2002) highlights that QWL involves making improvements to the physical working conditions under which employees operate in order to make their work setting more favourable. Stein (1983) suggests that whilst sometimes overlooked it is almost impossible to experience QWL without 'decent working conditions'. Concomitantly, Kerce & Booth-Kewley (1993) suggests that a high QWL is likely to occur when amongst other factors, such as job involvement and democratic supervision, a safe working environment is experienced. Harrison (2000) focussing upon the measurement of QWL suggests that by asking employees their opinions surrounding their satisfaction/dissatisfaction with

their work environment it can lead to an increased sense of belonging to the organisation, and in conjunction with other employee-centred areas can lead to an overall perception of QWL.

Immediate Opportunity to Use and Develop Human Capacities

Walton (1973) asserts that experiencing a high QWL is dependant upon the extent to which jobs allow the employee to both use and develop his/her skills and competencies. In light of this it is recognised that jobs should contain a number of features that would allow employees the opportunity to use and develop their human capacities and ultimately experience QWL. These features include autonomony, skill variety, task significance, and feedback. Orpen (1981) agrees with the importance of these features in determining QWL, yet locates their significance as contributing to personal growth, another of Walton (1973) determinants. A distinction in terms of the classification of the determinants of QWL is therefore witnessed.

The feature of autonomy suggests that a job should be designed in such a manner, which affords the employee a degree of independence and discretion in terms of how the job is carried out (Orpen, 1981). Stein (1983) also emphasises the importance of autonomy or control and defines it as the ability to influence one's working environment, a lack of which seriously impedes the experience of high QWL. Similarly, Newell (2002) suggests that QWL involves providing employees with greater responsibility and autonomy. In addition, Kerce and Booth-Kewley (1993) reflect upon the work of Herman and Hulin (1972) and Loscocco (1990) who point towards various situational or structural factors, entitled the structural approach, within a job that affect QWL. Specifically, the authors highlight that a job lacking in autonomy will result in low QWL amongst job incumbents. A study confirming the importance of autonomy is Reid's (1992) research, which elicited that seventy percent of surveyed employees experienced a lack of autonomy and control, which resulted in feeling of alienation ultimately contributing to low levels of QWL amongst employees.

The feature of skill variety allows employees the opportunity to use and develop their human capacities through exercise of their competencies, skills, and abilities rather than the repetition of limited, narrow skills (Orpen, 1981; Walton, 1973). The structural approach, as suggested by Herman and Hulin (1972) and Loscocco (1990) also hints towards the necessity of jobs to contain variety. Stein (1983) refers to the component of progress and development, which implies similarly that the development of skills and competencies is an important contributing factor for QWL to be high.

Task significance or what Walton (1973) calls 'information and perspective' relates to whether or not an employee is encouraged to seek and receive holistic information about all job aspects, so as to allow for both the divulging and appreciation of the significance of the job within the broader organisation. Closely related to task significance is feedback. This refers to the necessity of organisations to speedily supply employees with information and accurate knowledge regarding their performance and its' wider organisational impact (Orpen, 1981; Walton, 1973).

Future Opportunity for Continued Growth and Security

This QWL determinant shifts the emphasis from job to career advancement (Walton, 1973). Although Orpen's (1981) research reflects a degree of overlap between this determinant and the previous, similarly what he categorised as 'opportunity for personal growth' includes focus upon the opportunities that are provided for employees to advance their careers. This also relates to the idea of professional learning as a means for career advancement or succession possibilities (Bertrand, 1992).

Orpen (1981) suggests that whilst it is imperative for jobs to include features, such as autonomy, skill variety etc. it is simultaneously important that sufficient opportunities are available for self-improvement via promotion to more challenging, responsible and developmental jobs. Both Walton (1973) and Orpen (1981) suggest similar career features that are necessary prior to the experience of QWL, namely development, advancement, recognition, and safety.

Development refers to the extent that the incumbent's job activities, tasks, and responsibilities contribute to their continuous development in terms capabilities, competencies, and interests therefore negating the possibility of obsolescence (Walton, 1973; Orpen, 1981). Stein (1983) provides a slight variation and labels this feature 'progress and development', which highlights the numerous internal rewards or benefits that can be derived from work, such as challenge, exercise and development of skill and competence, and a general sense of success.

Advancement is understood as incorporating the advancement opportunities available to employees in career terms, as recognised by peers, associates or family members (Walton, 1973). In contrast the same definition is adopted by Orpen (1981) to define recognition, as opposed to advancement. Regarding advancement, Orpen (1981) describes it more specifically by referring to it as the degree to which employees can reasonably expect to broaden the usage of their various skills and competencies in future work tasks. In a somewhat less descriptive manner, Stein (1983) defines recognition as:

"being known as an individual and being visible not only personally, but as a contributor" (p.13). The overlap between the two features is clearly evident and hence interchangeable definitions are witnessed.

Although Orpen (1981) focuses on the importance of the term 'safety' it is probably more aptly entitled security, as both Walton (1973) and Orpen (1981) refer to it as involving employment or income security. The significance of security for the experience of QWL is supported by Mirvis and Lawler (1984) who emphasise the importance of a positive work environment, which should provide employees with stable employment.

In addition to organisations providing these career features it is also imperative that they are socially responsible (Newell, 2002). Organisations do not exist in isolation and their actions often have consequences beyond their boundaries. Employees are typically aware of this and organisations therefore viewed as not being socially responsible can result in employees placing less value in their work and careers, which can adversely affect their self worth and esteem. Accordingly, Walton (1973) raises an important social responsibility question: "Does the worker perceive the organisation to be socially responsible, for example, in its products, waste disposal, marketing techniques, employment practices, and relations to underdeveloped countries, participation in political campaigns, and so on?" (p.97).

Social Integration in the Work Organisation

The literature highlights the importance of social interaction as a determinant of QWL, as a consequence of the reality that organisational work does not take place in a vacuum (Orpen, 1981; Walton, 1973). Whether or not employees acquire positive images of self worth, identity, and self-esteem is largely dependent upon the nature of their human interactions within the workplace. Five factors, including supportiveness, tolerance, equality, mobility, and identification, are considered essential for these interactions to have beneficial outcomes for individuals.

Supportiveness relates to the nature of relationships between team members, which should be characterised by socioemotional assistance, respect for individuality, reciprocity, trust, openness and honesty (Orpen, 1981; Walton, 1973). Accordingly, the idea of supportiveness should also be demonstrated within supervisory relationships, which should be both helpful and caring in nature (Bertrand, 1992).

'Tolerance' or 'freedom from prejudices' implies an unequivocal acceptance of employees irrespective of race, religion, socio-economic position, or physical appearance (Walton, 1973). Closely related to the idea of tolerance is the importance of constitutionalisation in the workplace, which addresses extent to which employees have rights and how employers through implementation of formal procedures protect these. A number of factors, including privacy, free speech, equity, and due process are essential in providing QWL, and therefore employees should be afforded the right to openly voice their dissent on matters of importance without fear of retaliatory actions on the part of employers, this is known as free speech. Furthermore, the rights of all employees should be governed by the 'rule of law' rather than by the impulsive actions of certain individuals (Orpen, 1981; Walton; 1973).

Equality refers to the existence of work groups or teams that are not characterised by large vertical internal hierarchies, but are rather horizontal or flat in nature. Mobility focuses on the necessity for group members to strive for positions higher than those held by the majority of their co-group members within their organisations even if it requires leaving or ceasing to be a full member of the group (Orpen, 1981).

Identification is a quality of group relations which emphasises the sense of belongingness and affiliation that group members have towards the group and its' members, whilst still being able to experience a sense of separateness from the group (Harrison, 2000; Orpen, 1981; Stein, 1983). This idea of achieving separtedeness from the group can be extended to emphasise the importance of achieving a balance between ones' working and non-working lives. Accordingly, Orpen (1981) suggests that the nature of an individuals' working life should not be such that is adversely affects their leisure time, and conversely the nature of their leisure time should not impede upon the quality of their working lives. The two-way nature of this process can sometimes make application of this criterion challenging. Often it is difficult to ascertain whether an employee who exerts vast amounts of energy and time into their work is a cause of family distress or a symptom thereof. In other words is the employee merely trying to escape the difficulties of his/her family life by working hard, or is the nature of the work itself enforcing the employee to detract from and therefore impede upon family interaction (Orpen, 1981).

Whilst a thorough discussion of the determinant factors of QWL is important a holistic operationalisation thereof is impossible without considering its' outcome variables. A critical review of these outcomes therefore takes place in the next section.

Outcomes of QWL

Operationalisations of QWL have focussed primarily on its' determining factors and have largely ignored its' associated outcomes. This operationalisation is therefore extended to include an examination of these outcomes. In particular employee's experience of QWL affects their behavioural responses, including organisational identification, job satisfaction, job involvement, effort, and performance effectiveness, and personal alienation (Efraty & Sirgy, 1990; Kerce & Booth-Kewly, 1993). Furthermore, high quality of work life can lead to increased productivity, loyalty, levels of morale, and attendance (Kerce & Booth-Kewly, 1993).

Productivity and Performance

For a number of years it was assumed that enhancing employees' QWL would significantly contribute to improving their productivity and performance (Efraty & Sirgy, 1990). Whilst this assumption is true, according to Harrison (1987) this relationship occurs only under certain conditions. In addition, Efraty and Sirgy (1990) describe this relationship as occurring primarily through the impact that QWL has upon motivation. In other words an employee who is experiencing quality of work life may feel it necessary to invest effort and perform effectively. This improved performance is aimed at reducing any possible dissonance that may occur when an employee is experiencing QWL, but is not investing effort or receiving positive performance evaluations (Efraty & Sirgy, 1990).

Although clear evidence of this relationship is evidenced in studies by both Efraty and Sirgy (1990) and Hillard (1990), Kerce and Booth-Kewly (1993) point to the limited nature of this outcome measure of QWL. This is due to 'productivity' being both difficult to implement and measure for many professions. It is perhaps less challenging to assess productivity on an individual basis, especially when productivity is understood in terms of an individual's internal work standards. Accordingly, on an individual level, productivity and QWL are strongly related (Suttle, 1977). It is also important to note that employee productivity encompasses not merely work output, but can also be assessed in terms of work behaviours, such as absenteeism.

Significantly, a clear relationship between absenteeism and QWL exists in that both the perception and experience of QWL has been shown to effect issues such as absenteeism, attendance and turnover (Harrison, 2000; Hillard; 1990; Kerce & Booth-Kewly, 1993; Suttle, 1977). Specifically, these authors suggest that experiencing high QWL reduces absenteeism and turnover. Absenteeism is particularly

important as it results in decreased performance; it affects career aspirations, exacerbates the amount of work that co-workers need to complete, raises the costs associated with production, and finally decreases overall morale levels in organisations (Harrison, 2000).

Job Satisfaction

The relationship between QWL and job satisfaction is made even more vexing when considering the outcomes of QWL. Previously, it was suggested that job satisfaction is a determinant of QWL, as highlighted by Orpen (1981) who suggests it is a necessary although not sufficient condition for QWL. In contrast, Efraty and Sirgy (1990), Hillard (1990) & and Suttle (1977) assert that the most immediate gain from an improved QWL is higher job satisfaction. Similarly, Van Der Doef and Maes (2002) view job satisfaction as an outcome of QWL. This implies that although the experience of QWL is strongly contingent upon being satisfied with ones' job, the experience of QWL itself will ultimately heighten this previously experienced job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is therefore both a determinant and outcome of QWL.

Organisational Commitment

Organisational commitment, which can be defined as the extent to which employees identify with organisational objectives and values (Gospel, 2003), has been found to be a direct behavioural response to QWL (Donaldson, Sussman, Dent, Severson, & Stoddard, 1999). In moderate support of this Ramdial (1993) who investigated the relationship between QWL and the organisational commitment of first line supervisors in South Africa, elicited that significant relationships exist between organisational commitment and a few QWL factors. These factors included organisational climate, work group processes, supervisory leadership, and task characteristics.

In summary, an improvement in the QWL of employees is beneficial due to the many positive outcomes that can be accrued, such as productivity and performance, job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

The above sections have critically appraised the QWL literature within the organisational context, which is a useful process in terms of unpacking and operationalising the QWL construct. It is however important to acknowledge that whilst QWL can be applied across contexts in a general and encompassing way, empirical research suggests that QWL does take on different meanings for

different occupations (Levine, Taylor, & Davis, 1984). Investigating the QWL more closely amongst teachers is therefore imperative, and is carried out in the next section.

Quality of Work Life amongst Teachers

Definitions and Operationalisation of the QWL Construct within Education

Educational research reveals that whilst education specific literature is largely atheoretical in comparison to organisational literature it is often consistent with the conceptual models utilised in understanding work life issues in other organisational contexts (Louis, 1998). In terms of quality of work life (QWL) the educational literature offers a far less detailed definition thereof, and therefore adoption of the organisational definitions allows for greater and more specific identification of the factors that contribute to teachers' QWL (Louis, 1998).

As a consequence, Hart (1994, p.11), who examined the work experiences (both positive and negative) leading to teacher QWL, makes use of Efraty and Sirgy's (1990) organisational definition, and defines teachers' QWL as referring to: "the judgements that teachers make about the extent to which their work is satisfying and meeting their needs." Furthermore, Hart suggests: "it reflects the overall impression that teachers have about their work rather than focussing on either positive (e.g. positive affect or morale) or negative dimensions (e.g. negative affect or psychological distress) " (p.11).

Offering a different perspective Pelsma, Richerd, Harrington, and Burry (1989) focus upon the meaning of 'quality' in teachers' QWL, and suggest that it takes into consideration both satisfaction and stress factors as a means of providing a holistic picture of teachers' working lives. More specifically, the researchers defined quality as 'the sum of perceived stress (or lack of stress) plus the perceived dissatisfaction (or satisfaction) with factors inherent in the job of teaching'.

In terms of operationalising teachers' QWL, researchers have sought to focus on both its' determining and outcome variables. In particular, different frameworks outlining the determining or indicator factors of teachers QWL have been offered. Pelsma et al. (1989) cite 10 factors inherent to the job of teaching that contribute to teachers' QWL, whilst both Rossmiller (1992) and Louis (1998) focus on 7 criteria, which have largely been adopted from quality of worklife indicators in the organisational literature. Overlap between these frameworks is evidenced. In addition, Rossmiller (1992) focuses

closely upon the role of the principal in determining teachers' QWL, whilst Hart (1994) discusses the influence that morale and psychological distress (occupational stress) exert upon teachers' QWL.

Furthermore, in outlining the determinants of teachers' QWL it is imperative to examine and integrate the antecedents of teachers' job satisfaction. This is important for two reasons. Firstly, job satisfaction is a necessary condition for QWL, and therefore its antecedents determine QWL, and secondly, the concepts of job satisfaction and quality of work life are often used synonymously, and therefore studies focussing upon the determinants of teachers' job satisfaction are in effect often identifying the determinants of teachers' QWL. Review of studies investigating teachers' job satisfaction therefore contributes to a more holistic overview of those factors, which determine teachers' QWL.

The determinants of teachers' QWL are discussed in an integrated manner by making use of Pelsma et al's. (1989) 10 factors as the overarching framework, within which both Rossmiller's (1992) and Louis's (1998) seven criteria are included. In addition important studies of teachers' job satisfaction are outlined in their relevant sections. Finally, focussed discussion on the impact that morale, and stress have upon teachers QWL is presented. This discussion provides strong support for the comprehensive approach (i.e. focussing upon both positive and negative work experiences) adopted in outlining the determinants of teacher QWL.

Determinants of Teacher Quality of Work Life

Administration

According to Pelsma (2000) administration is a broad factor referring to teachers having trust and confidence in the capabilities of, and in the relationship with the administrator. In addition, Rossmiller (1992), Louis (1998) and Van Der Doef and Maes (2002) emphasise the importance of teachers' receiving the respect from those in administrative positions. In accordance with this respect is the importance of administrators encouraging teachers to participate in decision-making, which in turn strengthens their influence and control over their work environment therefore heightening their QWL (Louis, 1998; Rossmiller, 1992). This is supported by job satisfaction research, which suggests that teacher job satisfaction is positively related to participative decision-making (Bogler, 2001).

Students

This determinant emphasises the importance of student motivation, and interest level, as well as student discipline or aggression in determining teachers' QWL (Pelsma, 2000; Van Der Doef & Maes, 2002). In support, studies on teacher job satisfaction suggest that student achievement, positive student attitudes, staff-student relations, as well as racially mixed student populations all effect teacher satisfaction (Dinham & Scott, 2000; Reyes & Pounder, 1993). In particular research suggests that where white teachers work in schools predominated by black students greater role stress and less autonomy is experienced resulting in reduced job satisfaction (Mueller, Finley, Iverson & Price, 1999). Both autonomy and stress (or a lack thereof) are considered important determinants of QWL (Hart, 1994; Orpen 1981; Stein, 1983)

External/Internal Support

Essentially, Pelsma *et al* (1989) are referring to the numerous interpersonal relationships that teachers have with parents, staff members, the broader faculty, and representatives of the community. Van Der Doef and Maes (2002) also identify a multitude of supportive relationships, including social support form management, colleagues and the department supervisor, that teachers can have. Similarly, Rossmiller (1992) and Louis (1998) suggest the importance of frequent and stimulating professional interaction amongst peers in determining teacher QWL.

In particular, Rossmiller (1992) presents an interesting study investigating the relationship between the secondary school principal and teachers' quality of work life. The research was carried out in eight metropolitan secondary schools in the upper Midwest of the United States, and although its' generalisability to the South African context may be somewhat limited its findings are nevertheless informative. Based upon observational and interview data it was concluded that principals affect at least five of the seven indicators of teachers' QWL, as suggested by both Rossmiller (1992) and Louis (1998).

The indicators influenced by principals include the respect teachers receive from various adults involved in their schools. In addition teacher participation in decision-making was encouraged by principals allowing them to plan staff development activities, allowing them greater choice in curricular decisions, or affording teachers the opportunity to assist in developing school rules and regulations. Furthermore, professional interaction amongst peers was influenced by principals arranging formal schedules to encourage joint planning meetings involving teachers from multiple

disciplines. Fourthly, the principal was evidenced as being the central figure in enabling teachers to make use of their full range of skills. This was achieved through assisting teachers in acquiring additional skills, and well as in encouraging experimentation. Finally, principals were aware of the need for and importance of adequate resources, and a satisfactory working environment. They displayed this sensitivity by ensuring that copy machines were running effectively, and supplies of paper and other materials were readily available. Ensuring pleasant and orderly working conditions was achieved by recognising the need to maintain discipline through patrolling corridors and in some schools even implementing security guards.

Rosmiller (1992) suggests that little evidence was encountered to suggest that principals were concerned with the other two determinants of teachers' QWL, namely providing feedback on their performance, and in developing systems or structures aimed at aligning teacher goals with school goals. Whilst these findings overall appear rather positive, the research did reveal that quality of work life is just one of many factors that principals must attend to, and that until a clear, and strongly positive relationship is witnessed between teacher QWL and student performance, that teacher QWL may not be on top of the priority list.

Research on job satisfaction amongst teachers confirms the above findings and suggests that due to the hierarchical nature of schools, teachers' relationships with principals are particularly important (Xaba, 1996). Specifically, Dutweiller (cited in Xaba, 1996) indicates that good and effective principal leadership behaviour produces job satisfaction amongst teachers. In addition the importance of other collegial relationships in producing job satisfaction is recognised (Xaba, 1996).

Extrinsic Rewards

Extrinsic rewards refer to the salaries as well as fringe benefits that teachers receive (Pelsma, 2000). Many researchers suggest, and demonstrate the importance of salary or income sufficiency in determining QWL or job satisfaction (Pelsma, 2000, Van Wyk, 1999, Van Der Doef and Maes, 2002; Witt & Wilson, 1989). It is therefore surprising that the seven indicators of teachers' QWL, as discussed by Rossmiller (1992) and Louis (1998), fail to mention pay as a determining factor.

Perhaps this surprising exclusion of pay as a determining factor is partly explained by Soobrayan's (1992) study, which examined the nature of coloured teachers' jobs in the greater Durban area. In analysing the relationship between job satisfaction and pay, Soobrayan elicited that a very weak

relationship existed between the two variables. The reason being that in comparison to the vast majority of the economically active coloured population, teachers enjoyed high-income levels (Soobrayan, 1992).

This finding suggests that the relationship between pay and QWL may be more complex in nature than first thought, as it appears that the context (in this case the nature of racial designation in South Africa) within which teaching takes place could influence the pay/QWL relationship.

This finding was however not evidenced in another South African study focussing upon QWL perceptions amongst principals and teachers in urban black schools (Steyn & Van Wyk, 1999). Interviews suggested that poor salaries amongst other factors influenced most teachers' job dissatisfaction. Although within this study no specific mention was made as to the racial designation of the teachers, the languages of instruction used were Northern Sotho, Zulu, and Tsonga, and therefore it can be strongly assumed that the teachers were from African population groups.

Job Market

The extent to which teachers perceive there to be a surplus of other positions, as well as opportunities in the greater field of education can significantly contribute to QWL (Pelsma, 2000). This sentiment is supported by Van Der Doef and Maes (2002) who identified the work characteristic of future prospects as being an important determinant of QWL. Although Rossmiller (19992) and Louis (1998) do not make specific mention of this factor, they do mention the importance of teachers being given the opportunity to exercise their existing skills and competencies, as well as to develop new skills and knowledge. It is perhaps this self development which most accurately depicts what Pelsma (2000) is suggesting, as self development and growth ensures than teachers are more marketable within the field of education, and therefore stand a better chance of attaining other positions if they so desire.

The importance of the availability of other positions for teachers' experience of QWL may be linked to issues surrounding their job security or lack thereof. Within the job satisfaction literature researchers, such as Al Qassem (1999) and Al-Yamani & Bu-Gahoos (1996) have provided evidence suggesting that more experienced and secure teachers experience greater job satisfaction. In addition, Mwamwenda (1998) investigated this relationship amongst secondary school teachers in the Transkei, South Africa. It was found that most teachers were secure in their jobs (55%), and only 10% felt that they could lose their jobs at any moment. Furthermore, a statistically significant relationship between

job satisfaction and teacher experience was evidenced, which prompted Mwamwenda (1998) to conclude that more experienced teachers (also implies security, as 55% felt they had job security) in South Africa experience greater job satisfaction.

Some contradictory evidence is, however, provided by Wilkinson (2000) who elicited in a study investigating the relationship between teachers' job satisfaction and career stage, that career stage or age did not affect job satisfaction.

These studies on teacher job satisfaction essentially provide support for Pelsma's (2000) assertion concerning the importance of the availability of other positions for teachers' experience of QWL if viewed from the perspective that the availability of positions ensures security. This viewpoint implies that job security and experience are significant determinants of a teachers' QWL. From a different perspective, Pelsma's (2000) assertion may have no relation to job security, but rather other teaching positions provide an opportunity for further self development and growth, which leads to enhanced QWL, as suggested by Rossmiller (1992) and Louis (1998).

Work Environment

Literature suggests that within teachers' work environments it is important that the necessary resources required to effectively carry out their jobs are made readily available (Pelsma, 2000). In addition, these materials must be of sufficient quality so as to support the teaching process (Pelsma, 2000). Besides resources, it is imperative that the teachers' work environment is pleasant and orderly (Louis, 1998; Rossmiller, 1992; Van Der Doef & Maes, 2002). The orderly nature of schools can be in part influenced by the formalisation of school rules, teacher perceptions of which have been shown to result in job satisfaction (Smilansky, 1984). Furthermore, teachers' work environments are largely shaped by their interactions with students and therefore, pupil discipline, behaviour, interest and motivation all affect the quality of a teachers' work environment, and hence QWL (Rosmiller, 1992).

Whilst safe and healthy work conditions are typically associated with job satisfaction and QWL (Orpen, 1981; Steyn & Van Wyk, 1999; Walton, 1973), a research report by Mwamwenda (1995) suggests that in both Albania and South Africa, teachers experience job satisfaction despite working in unfavourable working conditions. This finding supports Pelsma et al'. s (1989) assumption that the QWL of teachers is multidimensional rather than unidimensional in nature.

Evaluation

The manner in which teachers evaluate students and are evaluated as teachers contributes to their QWL (Pelsma, 2000). Similarly, Rossmiller (1992) and Louis (1998) assert that that specific mechanisms need to be implemented, which ensure that teachers receive frequent and accurate feedback on their performance, as well as on the impact that such performance has upon student learning and development. Whilst it is logical to assume that such feedback is always derived from those in higher authority positions (i.e. principal or school board), Lortie (1975) suggests the importance of teachers receiving feedback from students, as teachers can access their performance through student academic growth.

Time and Interruptions

The last of Pelsma et al's (1989) determinants of teachers' QWL are exceedingly logical and practical in nature. It is important that teachers are afforded the necessary time for both planning, and carrying out their teaching process. Furthermore, their teaching process should take place in a disruption free environment (Pelsma, 2000).

Morale and Stress (Psychological Distress)

Although the central aim behind the growth in teacher stress research is the concern for improving QWL (Kyriacou, 1987), limited attention has been placed on the relationship between occupational stress and quality of work life (Worral & May, 1989). Traditionally, researchers have confined themselves to the belief that teachers' QWL can be improved by reducing teachers' levels of psychological distress. According to Hart (1994) this has resulted in teacher stress researchers focussing exclusively on the negative aspects of teaching (e.g. Borg, 1990; Kyriacou. 1987; Kyriacou & Sutcliffe, 1978).

In response to the above, Hart (1994) proposes a theoretical model of teacher QWL, which takes into account and integrates both adverse (psychological distress) and beneficial work experiences (morale) in understanding teacher QWL. Counter to popular wisdom that teacher stress is associated with unpleasant feelings at the cost of more pleasurable emotions, and on the basis of comprehensive research it was concluded that psychological distress and morale are independent variables, which independently and equally impact upon teachers' QWL. Consequently, some teachers may experience high levels of stress and low morale, whilst others may experience high levels of stress and high levels of morale.

The implications of Hart's (1994) research essentially provide support for the previous holistic and comprehensive approach to discussing the antecedents of teacher QWL. The research findings imply that achieving Efraty and Sirgy's (1990) favourable behavioural outcomes of job involvement, job effort, and job performance, should not conform solely with the conventional approach of simply reducing the amount of stress associated with teachers work lives (i.e. eradicating student misbehaviour, or reducing time constraints). Rather, focus should also be exerted upon positive work experiences, such as providing teachers with feedback, and the opportunity to grow and develop, as a means of attaining those beneficial outcomes. In other words, it is possible that a teacher's poor QWL is a result of low levels of morale, rather than the impact of stress, hence requiring a different intervention strategy to that which would otherwise be used if the conventional approach were adopted

Hart's (1994) confirmatory evidence also suggests the necessity of understanding both the determinants of stress and morale in attempts to develop a systemic view of teachers' QWL. The determinants of teachers stress typically include poor relationships with colleagues, poor working conditions, pupil misbehaviour, low salaries, as well as role conflict, role ambiguity, and role overload (Buwalda & Kok, 1991; Dunham, 1992; Kyriacou, 1987; Tuettemann & Punch, 1992; Van Der Doef & Maes, 2002). The determinants of morale, which are not as well documented, include general organisational factors (feedback and professional relations) and everyday teaching factors (curriculum consultation and formalised discipline structures). Furthermore, wide ranges of positive work experiences are considered important sources of morale (Hart, 1994). These sources of morale include, receiving feedback, engaging in professional growth and development, achieving congruence between personal and school goals, supportive leadership, participation in decision-making, and formalised discipline policy.

Evidently, many of the determinants of morale are also determinants of QWL, which demonstrates their importance in improving teacher QWL, and highlights the functional similarity between the job satisfaction/QWL relationship and the morale/QWL relationship. The final section continues to unpack the construct of QWL amongst teachers by focussing upon the important outcomes that can be derived from a high QWL.

Outcomes of Teacher Quality of Work Life

This section adopts a narrow yet focussed approach to critically appraising the outcomes of teachers QWL. The outcomes discussed include commitment, self-efficacy, classroom instruction, and student performance. Furthermore, brief mention of important outcomes of teacher job satisfaction is considered.

Commitment

The educational literature adopts a broader definition, as opposed to the general psychological literature, as to what commitment entails. Specifically, the construct is viewed as involving both a teachers' personal and professional investment in their workplace and to its goals, which is exemplified by specific behaviours suggesting increased effort and improved attitude (Louis, 1998). The importance of emphasising both attitudes and behaviour is that they may encourage improved classroom pedagogical practices, and student engagement (Louis, 1998).

In reflecting upon the relationship between QWL and commitment most studies cite personal characteristics or psychological variables as determining the outcome of commitment, rather than factors that are similar to or those, which contribute to QWL (Reyes, 1990). There are however studies, both within and outside of education, which suggest that QWL factors may lead to commitment. In particular, Stevens, Beyer, and Trice (1978) indicate that studies have investigated the relationship between organisational characteristics (a component of QWL) and commitment, and have found positive relationships between the two constructs to exist.

These findings are supported by Louis (1998) who investigated the effects of teacher quality of work life in secondary schools on both commitment and self-efficacy. All seven components of teachers QWL i.e. respect, sense of influence, collegial work, develop/use skills, feedback, resources, and goal congruence, were found to have significant positive effects upon commitment. The QWL variable evidenced to have the strongest relationship with commitment was developing and using ones skills, which suggests that teachers require continued stimulation to remain committed to their jobs.

Further support for this relationship is witnessed in a study by Lam, Foong, and Moo (1995) who found that the quality of teachers' work life had a direct effect upon career commitment. Whilst this was true, the study is somewhat limited for three reasons. Firstly, it focussed on only two components

of teachers' QWL namely, autonomy and competency. Secondly, these two components had a stronger effect upon job satisfaction than on career commitment, and thirdly, the sample consisted of teacher interns as opposed to qualified teachers, and therefore generalisations to qualified teachers may be difficult.

In addition to teachers QWL, studies on teacher job satisfaction have also been found to effect commitment. Shin and Reyes (cited in Shann, 1998), found that teacher job satisfaction determines commitment, and as a consequence it was important that school administrators concentrate upon improving job satisfaction. Other researchers have argued however that commitment is neither a determinant nor outcome of job satisfaction (Curry, Wakefield, Price, & Muller, cited in Billingsley & Cross, 1992).

Sense of Efficacy

Sense efficacy, which is defined by Bandura (1985) as involving a psychological disposition in which an individual believes and is confident than he/she can achieve their goals, is considered by Rosenholz & Simpson (1990) as an important variable in studying any model pertaining to teachers' work. This importance also stems from research by Ashton and Webb (1986), which is suggestive of the inherent link between teachers' sense of efficacy and student achievement.

In the same Louis (1998) study, which investigated the effects of teacher's QWL on commitment, similar results were elicited with self-efficacy as the outcome variable. As with commitment, all seven QWL factors were important predictors of a teachers' sense of efficacy. In contrast, 'respect' rather than 'skills' was the variable most strongly associated with self-efficacy, which suggests the importance of teachers needing to feel valued in order to believe they are influential.

Louis (1998) findings are supported by Lee, Dedrick and Smith's (1991) study which investigated the effect of five organisational characteristics, namely classroom control, school size, disruptive student behaviour, leadership and a sense of community, on teachers' sense of efficacy. All characteristics were found to have strong effects upon teachers self efficacy. Furthermore, teacher interviews carried out by Ashton & Webb (1986) revealed that workplace characteristics, such as participation in decision-making and strong collegial relationships have an influential effect upon a teachers' sense of efficacy.

Louis (1998) does however mention that whilst the study findings have beneficial implications for theory, policy, and practice, its' application elsewhere must be cautiously applied. This is because the schools in which this study took place are regarded as being a better place to work than the typical U.S. high school. Its' generalisability is therefore even more restricted for teachers in schools outside of the United States, such as in South Africa. Having said this Louis (1998) does emphasise the importance of research focussing upon the structure of teachers work life (as reflected in the seven QWL criteria) as if teachers' QWL is related to commitment and efficacy, than ignoring such emphasis is self defeating. This opinion is certainly applicable regardless of the educational context.

Classroom Practices

Within third world countries a major educational problem is that of poor school quality. Despite many attempts aimed at confronting this challenge few have yielded positive results with the central reason behind these failed attempts being cited as teacher resistance to proposed innovations (Perry, Chapman, & Snyder, 1995).

In light of such resistance, Perry et al. (1995) undertook a study to investigate the extent to which quality of work life is related to teacher receptivity to innovation as well as broader instructional practices among junior secondary school teachers in Botswana. Consequently, two significant results were elicited. Firstly, teachers differing in their perceptions of QWL differed in their adopted classroom practice. For example teachers who held the highest perceptions of QWL tended to maintain greater classroom discipline, presented more feedback, were clearer in presentations, and more sensitive to student needs. In contrast other groups of teachers displaying lower levels of QWL were generally associated with teaching practice reflecting less preparation, and the success of lessons were based more upon personal enthusiasm as opposed to well structured lessons. This suggests that in Botswana QWL may assist in shaping classroom behaviour although the authors admit that further verification of these causal connections require experimental research as correlation cannot be confused with causality.

The second finding, which was most interesting, was that the most satisfied teachers were found to be resistant to educational change, as a consequence of perceptions that change is an intrusion of an already satisfied and committed state. This finding implies that more satisfied teachers are not necessarily more receptive to change and therefore educational reformers must rather be more cognisant of the implications of change in teachers' QWL on teacher performance.

Finally, Perry et al. (1995) make mention of a key educational assumption, which is that student performance is affected by teacher's classroom practices (Saha, 1983). This implies that focussing upon teachers' QWL may be a manner in which to improve student performance although these relationships bear complexities as a function of the findings above. Nevertheless, these findings are informative and hold important implications for education in South Africa, which is affected by similar third word challenges as those faced by Botswana.

It is necessary to highlight that whilst this section's goal was to reflect specifically upon outcomes of teachers' QWL, additional general contextual QWL outcomes that were not included, such as absenteeism, attendance & turnover, should not be ignored or forgotten. Their importance is recognised in many job satisfaction studies amongst teachers, wherein strong support for negative relationships between job satisfaction and absenteeism has been evidenced (Borg & Riding, 1991).

Conclusion

The objective of the literature review was twofold. The first was to present a historical and traditional overview of the construct of QWL, including discussion around its associated determinants and outcomes. This was a general overview of QWL, which applies to all occupational groups. Furthermore, these discussions were strongly based upon the primary texts of the most prominent QWL scholars. The first section of the review also served as a platform for fulfilling the second objective, which was to review the literature pertaining to QWL amongst teachers. Although overlap between the organisational and more education specific literature exists, so do differences. Specifically, empirical research suggests that QWL does take on different meanings for different occupations, and therefore an educational review of QWL was necessary (Levine, Taylor, & Davis, 1984). In addition, review of both provides a more holistic appreciation of the QWL, and its associated determinants and outcomes. This chapter has therefore presented a critical appraisal of the QWL literature from both a historical/ traditional/general stance, and from an educational specific viewpoint.

Chapter 3: Method

Introduction

This chapter focuses upon the methodology that was followed in the current study. It commences by discussing the quantitative research approach that was used, and its applicability for the current research. The second section focuses upon the specific quantitative tool that was used, namely survey research. This discussion looks at survey research critically, it provides an overview of the pilot study that was conducted, and illustrates the process surrounding the administering of the survey to the participants. The third section provides a description of the sampling process that was adopted, focusing specifically upon the purposive sampling procedure (Dane, 1990). The fourth section describes the sample, and includes who the participants were, and other pertinent information, such as response rates. The next section discusses the research instrument that was used, namely the Teacher-Specific Version of the Leiden Quality of Work Life Survey (Van Der Doef & Maes, 2002). Various issues pertaining to the survey, such as scale reliabilities are also discussed. The final section focuses upon the analytic techniques that were used in the study, including both descriptive and inferential statistics.

Approach to the Research

The choice of the quantitative paradigm is motivated by the objectives of the research, which aim to investigate the quality of working life (QWL) amongst teachers from disadvantaged schools. The quantitative paradigm is appropriate for the current research, as it seeks to provide coherent explanations of social affairs, and in doing so allows for the quantifying of abstract phenomena or constructs through statistical manipulation, both of which contribute to the fulfillment of the study's objectives (Babbie & Mouton, 2002; Burrel & Morgan, 1979; Terreblanche & Durrheim, 1999). Despite many researchers advocating the use of multiple research methods for QWL studies, investigations into the quality of work life amongst teachers have generally been embedded within the quantitative paradigm through the use of surveys (Hart, 1994; Kerce & Booth-Kewley, 1993; Perry, Chapman & Snyder, 1995; Louis, 1998; Van Der Doef & Maes, 2002). The reason for this may be attributed to the scientific nature of the quantitative approach, which allows researchers the opportunity to describe and assess human behaviour through variable analysis, or in terms of QWL research between determinant and outcome variables (Babbie & Mouton, 2002; Pelsma, Richard, Harrington, & Burry, 1989). Accordingly, these variables are assessed through the use of surveys, providing a rich account of the quality of work life (QWL) of the particular sample of educators. The advantages of

working within the quantitative paradigm include the fact that accurate and reliable measurements are elicited, producing tangible and objective data, on which statistical analyses can take place (Durrheim & Terre Blanche, 1999).

Survey Research

The quantitative tool used in this study is that of survey research. It is an approach that involves the methodical collecting of information to describe people's beliefs, knowledge, attitudes, values, and behaviour (Fink, 1995; Sommer & Sommer, 1986). Advantages of adopting the survey method of research are that it allows the researcher to get closer to the real variables, and they develop a rich understanding of people at low cost (Bourque & Fiedler, 1995; Simon, 1978). In addition, surveys (questionnaires) can be distributed to large numbers of people, they can provide concrete, specific and unambiguous questions, and allow for statistical analysis to take place (Fowler, 1993; Halonen & Santrock, 1999). Furthermore, survey research is useful for prediction and description (Dane, 1990).

Research Procedure

The complete set of data for the study was attained via self-administered questionnaires, which consists of a series of written questions or statements on a topic about which participants' opinions or judgments are sought (Sommer & Sommer, 1986). Importantly, participants complete the survey themselves (Bourque & Fiedler, 1995). In order to limit some of the disadvantages of the survey approach, a pilot study was conducted. A pilot study is one in which you replicate the main study so that every aspect of the survey has been tried and tested beforehand (Gillham, 2000; Oppenheim, 1996). Sometimes questionnaires are adapted or acquired from other researchers, but still need to be piloted to ensure that it functions properly, and yields the desired data with the chosen population group (Oppenhein, 1996). For the current research the questionnaire was acquired from the Leiden University in Holland, but nevertheless a pilot study was conducted with one of the disadvantaged schools included in the original sample (Van Der Doef & Maes, 2002). The main reason for having used this school is that the participants in pilot studies should be as similar as possible to the final sample (Oppenheim, 1996).

In the pilot study participants were asked to fill in the questionnaire, and upon completion indicate any problem areas they may have encountered. In the subsequent discussion no problematic issues regarding the questionnaire were raised, despite English being largely a second language for most of

the participants. Only one issue was raised in connection to the phrase 'previously disadvantaged schools' which was found on the cover of the survey. The participants suggested that the term conveyed the impression, that the situation in these schools had improved, which it had not, and hence the term 'previously disadvantaged' was problematic. A rephrasing of the term to 'disadvantaged schools' was deemed to be necessary, and therefore throughout the research report the schools in the sample are referred to as 'disadvantaged schools'.

The administering of the surveys to the final sample took place in two different ways. In most cases the researcher spent an afternoon with the participants at their school where they were given the opportunity to fill the questionnaire in. Prior to completing the questionnaire participants were also asked to fill in an informed consent form. Due to time restrictions some principals preferred to circulate the surveys themselves by either placing them within the staff room or within each teacher's private pigeonhole.

Sampling Process

A non-probability sampling procedure was used to select the sample (Fink, 1995). Non-probability sampling does not involve random selection, but may still be representative of the population (Trochim, 2000). Non-probability sampling is widely practiced, mainly as a result of its' convenience (Kalton, 1983, Trochim, 2000). Its' convenient nature is demonstrated through the specific non-probability sampling technique that was implemented, which is known as purposive sampling (Bailey, 1987; Kalton, 1983). Purposive sampling refers to procedures that are focused upon attaining a certain type of element for the research (Dane, 1990). Furthermore, the researcher typically uses his or her own judgment about which respondents to select, and sampling is carried out with a particular purpose in mind (Bailey, 1987; Trochim, 2000).

The initial selection phase for the final sample began by consulting the Western Cape Schools Statistical Report for Public Ordinary Schools (2001), which was attained from the Western Cape Education Department. The aim of this report is to provide Western Cape Education Department (WCED) Managers with accurate information about the internal status of schools that can assist in policy development and the provision of appropriate support. The information is gathered through the use of a questionnaire known as the Monitoring and Evaluation Survey, which also allows schools to assess themselves, and develop an awareness of problematic areas that need improvement. The survey

itself comprises various sections, each containing numerous questions that are combined into various indices. These indices include the Whole School Index (WSI), which is a composite of the other indices, School Governance and Management Index (SGMI), School Policy Index (SPI), School Administration Index (SAI), Curriculum Management Index (CMI), Learner Support Material Index (LSMI), Community and Parent Index (CPI), Safety and Security Index (SSI), Resource and Equipment /Index (REI), and the Poverty and Resourcing Index (PRI). The results of every school surveyed in relation to each of these indices are reported at the back of the full Statistical Report for Public Ordinary Schools (2001). The only comprehensive document to which access was granted was the 2001 report.

By utilising the list of schools included in the Statistical Report for Public Ordinary Schools (2001), 14 disadvantaged schools were initially selected. This selection was based upon where these schools were located, and how they were rated according to the Poverty and Resourcing Index (PRI) of the 'blue audit'. It was decided that this index, which indicates the poverty levels of schools, would be the best manner in which to discriminate between types or levels of disadvantaged schools, hence allowing the opportunity to compare the quality of work life (QWL) of teachers across different types of disadvantaged schools. The rating scale for this index ranged from poor to good, and it was decided that only schools rated as being either poor or below average would be selected for the final sample. The other two ratings, which are above average or good were not considered to be useful for identifying a disadvantaged school, and were therefore ignored.

Prior to final selection of the sample, a letter was sent to the Western Cape Education Department outlining the research topic, and also presenting the names of the 14 disadvantaged schools that represented the possible sample. Upon receiving confirmation from the Department of Education, eight schools were selected for the final sample, four of which were rated as poor, and four that were rated as below average according to the Poverty and Resourcing Index (PRI). All schools selected for the final sample agreed to participate. This agreement was attained in preliminary meetings, which were held with each of the principals of the respective schools. In these meetings, the nature of the research, including issues surrounding its duration, confidentiality, and privacy, as well as issues relating to the survey instrument, was discussed.

Sample

The research report is based on survey data collected from eight disadvantaged high schools in the Cape Town area. Specifically, seven schools were located in Khayelitsha, and one school in Langa. Out of approximately 320 surveys sent out, 117 useable surveys completed by teachers were returned, representing an overall response rate of 37% (N = 117). Of the 117 teachers, 45 are male and 72 are female. The ages of the sample ranged from one person between the 18-20 years category to two people in the 51-55 years category. In addition, the home language breakdown indicates that the majority of participants were Xhosa speaking with 101 teachers falling into this category

Table 1: Age of sample of teachers

	Count	Percent
18-20	1	1%
21-25	5	4%
26-30	15	13%
31-35	45	38%
36-40	30	26%
41-45	13	11%
46-50	6	5%
51-55	2	2%
Missing	0	0%

Table 2: Home Language of sample of teachers

	Count	Percent
English	4	3%
Xhosa	101	86%
Afrikaans	4	3%
Other	6	5%
Prefer not to answer	2	2%
Missing	0	0%

The sample of schools is further broken down into two distinct sub-samples of four schools each, with each sub-sample representing a different degree of impoverishment. The first sub-sample, which was rated as poor in terms of the poverty and resources index (PRI), consists of 60 participants, and the second sub-sample, which was rated as below average on the same index, consists of 57 participants.

Research Instruments

The survey that was used is titled the Teacher-Specific Version of the Leiden Quality of Work Life Survey (Van Der Doef & Maes, 2002) (See Appendix 7). The survey was based upon the Leiden Quality of Work Questionnaire (LQWQ), which is a general quality of work measure designed to provide a holistic appreciation of the work situation based on occupational stress theory (Van Der Doef & Maes, 2002). The LQWQ measures eleven work characteristics, namely skill discretion, decision authority, task control, work and time pressure, role ambiguity, physical exertion, hazardous exposure, job insecurity, lack of meaningfulness, social support supervisor, social support co-workers, as well as

the outcome variable of job satisfaction. The teacher version was developed around these work characteristics by a team of two authors and two teachers (Van Der Doef & Maes, 2002). The initial phase involved formulating items for each work characteristic measured by the LQWQ, which resulted in an item pool of 111 items. Through implementation of factor analyses and reliability analyses this item pool was reduced to a 74-item questionnaire (Van Der Doef & Maes, 2002). The LQWQ-Teacher version (2002) measures fourteen work characteristic and two outcome variables, and these constitute the scales of the questionnaire. The fourteen work characteristics are work and time pressure, role ambiguity, student aggression, training, task variety, decision authority, social support management, social support department supervisor, social support colleagues, physical exertion, physical work environment, job insecurity, future prospects, and lack of meaningfulness. The two outcome measures are job satisfaction and turnover intention.

During the development phase of the LQWQ-Teacher version reliability analyses were performed. Overall the reliability of the teacher-specific scales was found to be satisfactory, with almost all scales having a Conbach alpha of .75-.85 (see Table 2, Chapter 4). The reliabilities of each scale were as follows: Work and time pressure (.83), role ambiguity (.81), student aggression (.81), training (.84), task variety (.77), decision authority (.70), social support management (084), social support department supervisor (.87), social support colleagues (.77), physical exertion (.79), physical work environment (.69), job insecurity (.81), future prospects (.69), and lack of meaningfulness (.79), job satisfaction (.76), and turnover intention (.70). However, two items that significantly lowered the reliability of their respective scales were deleted in the final analyses. Item 3 in the task variety scale, and item 1 in the decision authority scale were removed accordingly.

In addition to the LQWQ-Teacher version, questions asking for participants' demographic details, and an organisational commitment scale were added. Bagraim (2001) developed an organisational commitment scale, which was based upon the work of Meyer and Allan (1997). The commitment scale addresses three components of organisational commitment, namely affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment. Affective commitment is defined as an emotional attachment to an organisation, which includes support for organisational goals and activities (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Continuance commitment, on the other hand refers to an individuals' perceived investments in the organisation (both psychological and economic), so that it is associated with the perceived costs of exit (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Finally, normative commitment can be described as a feeling of reciprocity wherein the individual feels committed to the organisation because it appears to

be the correct thing to do (Allen & Meyer, 1990). The demographic questions i.e. gender, age, as well as other information such as subject taught, length of teaching, and levels of job satisfaction and commitment were included at the beginning of the survey. These questions were acquired from the International Survey of Teachers Job Satisfaction (Crede & Chernyshenko, 2001). The majority of the questions used within this survey were standard questions that have been previously used within psychological research (Crede & Chernyshenko, 2001).

The final page of the survey provided participants with an open-ended question asking them to reflect broadly upon their work experiences. This question, which was also acquired from the International Survey of Teachers Job Satisfaction, was included, as it provides a more unpredictable and free-ranging response from respondents (Gillham, 2000). Furthermore, questions such as these allow respondents the opportunity to expand upon previous answers, and can therefore be very motivating (Wisker, 2001). The open-ended question was also strategically placed at the end of the survey, as these types of questions are considered a useful way of finishing a questionnaire (Gillham, 2000). They ultimately leave respondents feeling as though their personal opinions are important, and that they have not been subjected to the limitations of prescribed answers (Gillham, 2000). The specific technique that researchers use in analysing open-ended questions is called content analysis (Gillham, 2000).

Data Analysis

The technique that is used for analysing survey research is statistical analysis (Oppenheim, 1996). Statistics is the theory and method for analysing quantitative data obtained from samples of observations, as a means to confirm or reject hypotheses, or to assist in making reliable inferences from empirical observations (Kerlinger, 1986). Depending upon the nature of the data collected different statistical tools can be used. The LQWQ-Teacher version (2002) together with the added demographic, and commitment scale comprises a mixture of data types, namely, interval, nominal and ordinal data. The majority of the scales in the LQWQ-Teacher version are however Likert Scales, and hence constitutes ordinal data (Bailey, 1987). Many statistical packages exist, which can assist the researcher in performing the appropriate statistical techniques. The specific package utilised for this research was Statistica, version 6, and its application consisted of a number of stages, each of which is discussed. In addition to the statistical analysis, content analysis was used to analyse the open-ended question that was included at the conclusion of the questionnaire (Gillham, 2000). The results of the

various statistical techniques, and the content analysis can be found in the results chapter (Chapter 4), and various appendices.

Descriptive Statistics

The first stage of the statistical analysis involved performing descriptive statistics upon the demographic variables included in the survey. Descriptive statistics do not make any inferences, but simply provide a description of the sample data (Bailey, 1987). The analyses, which are most suitable for descriptive purposes, are generally called summary or exploratory statistics, and include the use of frequency displays (Dane, 1990). Consequently, frequency tables were used for analysing the age breakdown of the teachers (see Table 1 above), and the home language breakdown of the teachers (see Table 2 above), as well as tenure at the school, and martial status (see Tables 10 and 11, Appendix 1). Furthermore, a pie chart was used to display the subjects taught by the teachers (see Pie Chart 1, Appendix 1).

An overview of the entire sample, as well as the two sub-samples' overall QWL was achieved in the second stage of analysis. Using descriptive statistics, the mean of each participant's scores across each item of the antecedent scales were calculated (Items 9-76, Appendix 7). These means were then added, and divided by the number of participants in the study (N =117). Accordingly, an overall mean QWL score was attained. The same process was performed on each sub-sample. This process was the only manner in which to calculate overall QWL, as the LQWQ-Teacher version does not contain a composite score for calculating QWL, due in part to the difficulty in assigning weights to the respective determinant variables.

The third stage involved performing descriptive statistics upon the outcome variables of QWL, namely job satisfaction, turnover intention, and commitment (Ramdial, 1993; Van Der Doef & Maes, 2002). Furthermore, the QWL determinants of student aggression and role ambiguity were subjected to descriptive statistics. The determinant of student aggression was selected, as it was a dominant theme that arose in the content analysis (See Table 4, Results Chapter). Role stress was chosen due to research indicating that South African teachers have become confused as to what their roles are, and are consequently experiencing stress related problems (Myburgh & Poggenpoel, 2002; Ngidi & Sibaya, 2002). Specifically, the means of the outcome and antecedent variables were calculated so as to provide an overall appreciation of the samples' QWL.

Reliability and Item Analysis Techniques

The fourth stage of the statistical analysis encompassed testing the reliability of the scales. Reliability refers to the degree to which a measuring instrument yields the same result on repeated trials (Terre Blanche & Durheim, 1999). This is an important first step, as it is a means by which existing scales can be improved upon, and it provides impetus for proceeding with other analyses (Statsoft, 2002). Specifically, all scales were assessed for internal consistency, using Cronbach's Alpha (Howell, 1995). Whilst the reliability of scales will never be perfect some convention exists for what is considered to be an adequate Cronbach Alpha. If the reliability of a scale drops below 0.8 than such a scale may come in for some serious criticism, and may need to be reconstructed (Oppenheim, 1996).

Factor Analysis

Following the reliability testing, Exploratory Factor Analysis was conducted upon on each scale, in order to determine what the underlying dimensions of each scale were (Oppenheim, 1996). The central purpose of factor analysis is to reduce the number of variables, and to infer the underlying dimensions in the relationships between variables, or to classify variables (Statsoft, 2002). Principal Components Factor Analysis was used throughout the process, as was casewise substitution of missing data (Bennet & Bowers, 1976). Principal components Analysis was used as it is appropriate for most social sciences research, and is the most often used factor analysis technique ('Factor Analysis', no date). In addition, Principal components Analysis accounts for all the common and unique variance in a set of variables ('Factor Analysis', no date). Furthermore, due to the complications associated with Common Factor Analysis, such as factor indeterminacy, researchers have tended to favour the use of Component Analysis (Chapter 7, no date). Added to Components Analysis, Varimax Factor Rotation (*varimax normalised*) was also used (Statistica), and this is classified as an orthogonal rotation method. Varimax Rotation maximizes the variance of the squared loadings of a factor on all variables in a factor matrix, which serves the purpose of differentiating the original variables by extracted factors ('Factor Analysis', no date). Factor loadings greater than 0.3 were considered significant, and if this criterion was not met than those items were deleted. If items were deleted than reliability testing was repeated on the respective scale.

T-Tests

The sixth stage of the analysis concerned the use of T-tests for independent samples, which involves testing the differences between the means of those two independent samples (Howell, 1995). T-tests essentially make an inference about a data set, and are therefore considered inferential statistics, the

goal of which is to gain information about the broader population (Bailey, 1987). The two independent samples consisted of the four disadvantaged schools that were rated as poor in terms of the poverty and resources index (PRI) (n = 60), and the second subsample comprised of the four disadvantaged schools rated as below average on the same index (n = 57). Sample means were compared to one another with respect to job satisfaction, turnover intention, commitment, and the three components of commitment, i.e. affective, continuance, and normative (outcomes of QWL). In addition the means of the antecedent variables across the two samples were also compared. This stage of analysis would be used to confirm whether the differences between the samples were in fact significant or not.

Correlation Analysis

Stage seven of the analysis made use of correlation analysis of variables considered important in relation to the identified hypotheses and goals. Correlational analyses demonstrate an association between two variables, but do not imply causality (Dane, 1990). A number of the scales that were used had to be collapsed into one measure. A collapsed measure acts as a number replacement for the purpose of linear analysis (Dwyer, 1983).

Multiple Regression Analysis

The penultimate stage of the analysis involved Multiple Linear Regression. Regression analysis builds upon correlational analysis in that it attempts to show causal relationships, as opposed to mere associations between variables (Bailey, 1987). It achieves this by enabling the prediction of one variable from knowledge of the other (Bailey, 1987). Specifically, Forward Stepwise Regression was used to establish explained variances in the dependent variables. Draper and Smith (1981) and Darlington (1990) indicate that forward stepwise regression is probably the most useful method to use as it allows for the best compromise between finding an optimal equation for predicting future randomly selected data sets from the same population, and finding an equation that predicts the maximum variance for the specific data set under consideration. According to Howell (2002), backwards stepwise regression is risky because it may spuriously identify suppressor relationships between variables, and exclude the variable it defines as a suppressor. Three dependent variables were identified as being important for the goals of the study. Specifically, job satisfaction, was identified as the first dependent variable, and the predictor variables placed into the equation consisted of all the antecedent variables of QWL that were included in the questionnaire (Van Der Doef & Maes; 2002). The remaining two dependent variables were those of turnover intention and organisational commitment. The variables used to predict these outcome variables were the same used in the previous

equation. The F-to-enter values were set at 4, and the F-to-remove values were set at 3.75 throughout the analysis. These values suggest a more conservative inclusion criteria. The same regression analyses were also performed on each of the sub-samples in order to determine whether the predictor variables of each of the outcomes were similar in each. This contributed to the fulfillment of the studies' sub-goals. In addition it also reveals the contribution of each determinant to the experience of QWL.

Content Analysis

The final stage of the analyses focused upon analysing the open-ended question through the use of content analysis (Gillham, 2000). The purpose of content analysis is to transform verbal, non-quantitative material into manageable and meaningful categories that can be understood by the researcher (Bailey, 1987; Gillham, 2000). The first stage of the content analysis involved developing categories, which the statements would more than likely fall into, and which were consistent with the purposes of the research. This is important, as the categories should reflect the objectives of the research (Holsti, 1969). The antecedents and outcomes of QWL were therefore utilised as the categories for the content analysis. Upon revisiting the answers to the question it was apparent that not all categories were necessary, and that some could be combined. The final analysis was written up as a qualitative, descriptive, or interpretive response about what the participants had said, and where appropriate quotations from respondents were included (Gillham, 2000; Wisker, 2001).

Conclusion

This chapter focused upon the research method that was followed in the current study. It began by discussing the quantitative paradigm in which the research was embedded. Specifically, justification for having chosen this paradigm was provided. In addition a critical appraisal of the quantitative paradigm took place. The second section of the chapter focused upon the specific quantitative tool that was used in the study namely, survey research. This section looked at survey research, by means of self-administered questionnaires, critically, and this provided impetus for reviewing the pilot study that was conducted with the purpose of minimising the limitations of survey research. Furthermore, the process of administering the questionnaires to the participants was highlighted. The third section of the chapter described the sampling process that was adopted, with emphasis being placed upon the specific technique, namely purposive sampling that was used (Dane, 1990). This was followed by a description of the actual sample of participants, and it included who the participants were, and other pertinent information, such as response rates. The fifth section discussed the research instrument that was used,

namely the Teacher-Specific Version of the Leiden Quality of Work Life Survey (2002). Various issues pertaining to the survey, such as scale reliabilities were also discussed. The chapter was concluded by focusing upon the analytic techniques that were used in the study, including both descriptive an inferential statistics. The specific stages that were involved in the analysis were discussed accordingly. It is also important to note that a number of methodological limitations exist within this study. These are discussed in the final chapter of the thesis (Chapter 6).

Chapter 4: Results

Introduction

This chapter focuses upon the results that were attained, and has been divided into seven sections. The first section focuses upon the descriptive statistics that were performed on the three samples, namely the full sample, the poor sample, and the below average sample. Specifically, this section reveals the levels of teacher QWL within each of the samples, and indicates the descriptive statistic results with respect to all the outcomes, and two determinants, of QWL. The second section includes an assessment of the reliability of all measures used in the research process through the implementation of item analysis techniques (Cronbach's coefficient alpha). Section three presents the results of the factors analysis. Section four presents the T-test results across the poor and below average samples for all determinant and outcome variables. Section five focuses upon the results of the correlational analysis, whilst section six presents the results of the multiple regression analyses. The final section of the chapter presents the themes that emerged from answers to the open-ended question, through the use of content analysis. Furthermore, it is important to note that many of the results have been included in the appendices, and must therefore be referred to when suggested.

Section 1: Descriptive Statistics

Levels of QWL amongst Teachers from Disadvantaged Schools (See Table 1, Appendix 1)

The mean overall QWL score for the full sample of teachers was 2.69 (n = 117). Similarly the mean QWL score across both the poor and below average subsamples were calculated at 2.68 (n =60), and 2.71 (n = 57) respectively. For table 1, a mean score closer to 4 indicates higher QWL, whilst a mean score closer to 1 indicates lower QWL.

Outcomes of QWL

Levels of Job Satisfaction (JS 1 item measure)

Respondents were asked how satisfied they are with their current job, and according to table 2 (see Appendix 1) the majority of respondents (33%) in the full sample are dissatisfied with their jobs, 15% are very dissatisfied, 23% answered neutrally, 25% are satisfied, and 3% are very satisfied. In accordance with these results, table 3 (See Appendix 1) indicates that the mean score of job satisfaction for the full sample is 2.62 (n = 117), for the poor sample 2.53 (n = 60), and for the below average sample 2.72 (n = 57). Table 3 represents the 1-item measure of job satisfaction with a mean of

1 indicating very low job satisfaction, and a mean of 5 indicating very high job satisfaction (see item 9, Appendix, 7).

Levels of Job Satisfaction (3 item measure)

Table 4 (see Appendix 1) represents the 3-item Job satisfaction Scale with a calculated mean of 2.33 across the full sample of 117 teachers. Across the poor sample the mean was calculated at 2.3 (n = 60), and for the poor sample at 2.35 (n = 57). In relation to this scale mean scores closer to 4 indicate higher job satisfaction, and scores closer to 1 indicate lower job satisfaction (see items 1-4, Appendix 7).

Levels of Commitment (1 item measure)

Respondents were asked how committed they feel towards the school in which they are currently employed, and it would appear that they are quite committed overall. Overall 51% felt committed, 39% very committed, 6% responded neutrally, 1% felt uncommitted, and 3% were very uncommitted (See Table, 5, Appendix 1). In terms of the mean commitment scores, table 6 (Appendix, 1) indicates that the full sample of teachers (n = 117) has a mean of 4.24, the poor sample a mean of 4.33 (n = 60), and finally the below average sample a mean of 4.14 (n = 57). Regarding the 1-item commitment measure, mean scores closer to five indicate higher commitment, and scores closer to 1 indicate lower commitment (See item 10, Appendix 7).

Turnover Intention

Table 7 (See Appendix 1) presents the mean turnover intention scores for each sample. The full sample has a mean of 2.75 (n = 117), the poor sample a mean of 2.81 (n = 60), and the below average sample a mean of 2.68 (n = 57). In relation to this scale mean scores closer to 4 indicate higher turnover intention, and scores closer to 1 indicate lower turnover intention (See items 5-8, Appendix 7).

Determinants of QWL

Student Aggression

Across the full sample of teachers (n = 117) the mean calculation for student aggression was 3.00. Across the poor sample the mean was 3.05 (n = 60), and for the below average sample it was calculated at 2.96 (n = 57) (See Table 8, Appendix 1). Furthermore, mean scores closer to 4 indicate higher student aggression, and closer to 1, lower student aggression.

Role Stress

Table 9 (See Appendix, 1) represents the role ambiguity scale with a calculated mean of 2.53 across the full sample of 117 teachers. In addition, it reveals that the poor sample has a mean of 2.47 (n = 60), whilst the below average a mean score of 2.59 (n = 57). Similar to the other scales, mean scores closer to 4 indicate a higher level of role stress, and scores closer to 1, a lower level of role stress.

Section 2: Reliability and Item Analysis

The reliability of all the scales included in the Teacher-Specific Version of the Leiden Quality of Work Life Survey (2002) was measured through the item analysis technique of calculating the Cronbach alpha's for each specific subscale. Table 1 below reveals that the majority of the subscale reliabilities were reasonably high, indicating that the specific scales are reliable, and that the internal consistency of each measure is very high (each item within a scale is measuring the same construct).

Table 1. Reliabilities of Current Study

	Current Study	
Reliabilities of Scales	**Valid N**	**Cronbach Alpha**
Job Satisfaction (JS)	117	**0.70**
Turnover Intention (TO)	117	**0.38**
Task Variety (TV)	117	**0.32**
Decision Authority (DA)	117	**0.61**
Time Pressure (TP)	117	**0.61**
Physical Exertion (PE)	117	**0.77**
Environmental Risk (ER)	117	**0.64**
Role Ambiguity (RA)	117	**0.72**
Student Aggression (SA)	117	**0.78**
Involvement (I)	117	**0.76**
Insecurity (INSEC)	117	**0.62**
Prospects (P)	117	**0.52**
Training (T)	117	**0.75**
Support Management (SMAN)	117	**0.84**
Social Support Supervisor (SSUP)	117	**0.87**
Social Support Colleagues (SCOL)	117	**0.85**
Affective Commitment (ACO)	117	**0.87**
Continuous Commitment (CCO)	117	**0.85**
Normative Commitment (NCO)	117	**0.91**
Commitment	117	**0.94**

Table 2. Van Der Doef & Maes Study (2002)

	Van Der Doef & Maes	
Reliabilities of Scales	**Valid N**	**Cronbach Alpha**
Job Satisfaction (JS)	454	**0.76**
Turnover Intention (TO)	454	**0.70**
Task Variety (TV)	454	**0.77**
Decision Authority (DA)	454	**0.70**
Time Pressure (TP)	454	**0.83**
Physical Exertion (PE)	454	**0.79**
Environmental Risk (ER)	454	**0.70**
Role Ambiguity (RA)	454	**0.81**
Student Aggression (SA)	454	**0.81**
Involvement (I)	454	**0.79**
Insecurity (INSEC)	454	**0.81**
Prospects (P)	454	**0.69**
Training (T)	454	**0.84**
Support Management (SMAN)	454	**0.84**
Social Support Supervisor (SSUP)	454	**0.87**
Social Support Colleagues (SCOL)	454	**0.77**

Two exceptions were however found, namely the turnover intention (.38), and task variety (.27) scales. The low reliability regarding the turnover intention scale was found to be inconsistent with previous reliability assessments of the same scale where its' Cronbach Alpha was calculated at .7 (Van Der Doef & Maes, 2002)(See Table 2 above). Furthermore, the analysis revealed that the scale's reliability would not be increased through item deletion (See Appendix 2, Table 1). In relation to the task variety scale, inconsistency is found with previous assessments of the same scale wherein a Cronbach alpha of 0.77 was found (Van Der Doef, 2002). It must however be mentioned that item 11 of the Teacher-Specific Version of the Leiden Quality of Work Life Survey (2002) (see Appendix 7) was found to lower the reliability of the task variety scale in both the current study, and in the Van Der Doef and Maes (2002) assessment. Similar to the Van Der Doef & Maes (2002) study, the item was deleted, which raised the reliability from 0.27 to 0.32 (See Appendix 2, Table 2). The improved Cronbach alpha was however not as high as that found by Van Der Doef & Maes (2002), and therefore all conclusions or suggestion based upon the task variety scale takes this low reliability into consideration. The same can be said for conclusions or suggestions based upon the turnover intention scale.

Whilst the reliabilities of the majority of the other scales were reasonably high, it was found that deleting some items from certain scales improved their respective reliabilities. The job satisfaction scale originally yielded a Cronbach alpha of 0.65, but with deletion of item 1 (see Appendix 7) from the Teacher-Specific Version of the LQWQ (2002), its' reliability was increased to 0.7. Accordingly, the item was deleted (See Appendix 2, Table 3). The role ambiguity scale was subjected to the same process, as originally the scale yielded a Cronbach alpha of 0.66, but with deletion of item 36 (see Appendix 7) it was improved to 0.72 (See Appendix 2, Table 4). The increased Cronbach alpha was found to be more consistent with other role ambiguity scales where reliabilities have approximated 0.8 (Rizzo, House, & Lirtzman, 1970). Overall the majority of the scale reliabilities were reasonably high, with a high degree of consistency being found between the current study, and the work of Van Der Doef & Maes (2002) (See Table 1 and Table 2 above).

Section 3: Factor Analysis

The Principle Components method of Factor Analysis was performed on all the determinant and outcome variables of QWL, as means to determine what the underlying dimensions of each scale were (Oppenheim, 1996).

Outcome Variables

The results of the factor analysis for the outcome variables of job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and turnover intention scales were for the most part as expected (See Figure 1,2,3, Appendix 3). The job satisfaction scale extracted only one factor as was expected, and the organisational commitment scale similarly met the expectation of extracting three factors. These three factors are consistent with the three components of organisational commitment, namely affective, continuous, and normative commitment, as suggested by Meyer and Allan (1990). It is not surprising that this consistency was found, as the organisational commitment scale used in the current study was based upon the work of Allan and Meyer (1990). It is however surprising that whilst three factors were extracted, the first item of the continuous commitment scale (See item 7, Appendix 7) loaded onto the affective commitment component, which contrasts from the work of Allan and Meyer (1990). The turnover intention scale like the job satisfaction was expected to extract one factor, but two were extracted. Deleting an item/s from the scale did not reduce the number of extracted factors nor increase the scale's reliability, and therefore all items were included in later analyses.

Determinant Variables

The majority of the determinants of QWL extracted one factor, which was expected (See Figures 4-17, Appendix 3. Those that did not include the scales of decision authority (2 factors), time pressure (3 factors), environmental risks (2 factors), role ambiguity (2 factors), job insecurity (2 factors), and future prospects (3 factors). The only scale, which experienced both a significant increase in reliability and a reduction in the number of extracted factors when an item/s was deleted, was the role ambiguity scale. Accordingly, item 36 (See Appendix 7) was deleted resulting in only one factor being extracted. This finding is consistent with previous psychometric studies concerning the role ambiguity scale (Rizzo et al, 1970, Breaugh, 1980, House, Levanoni, & Schuler, 1983).

Table 3. Factor Analysis of Scales (Min Eigen Values of 1)

Scale	Factors Extracted	Scale	Factors Extracted
Job Satisfaction (JS)	1	Insecurity (INSEC)	2
Turnover Intention (TO)	2	Prospects (P)	3
Task Variety (TV)	1	Training (T)	1
Decision Authority (DA)	2	Support Management (SMAN)	1
Time Pressure (TP)	3	Social Support Supervisor (SSUP)	1
Physical Exertion (PE)	1	Social Support Colleagues (SCOL)	1
Environmental Risk (ER)	2	Affective Commitment (ACO)	1
Role Ambiguity (RA)	1	Continuous Commitment (CCO)	1
Student Aggression (SA)	1	Normative Commitment (NCO)	1
Involvement (I)	1		

Section 4: T-Tests for Independent Samples

T-tests were used in order to determine whether significant mean differences, with respect to the QWL outcome variables of job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and turnover intention, existed across the poor (n=60) and below average (n=57) samples. The same procedure was followed in relation to the determinants of QWL, which includes work and time pressure, role ambiguity, student aggression, training, task variety, decision authority, social support management, social support department supervisor, social support colleagues, physical exertion, physical work environment, job insecurity, future prospects, and lack of meaningfulness.

Table 1 (See Appendix 4) illustrates all the T-tests that were performed on each of the outcome and determinant variable means, across the two independent samples. The table highlights that only future prospects (P) means across the poor and below average samples are significantly different as $p = 0.008626$ ($p<0.05$).

Section 5: Correlation Analysis

Correlation Analysis was conducted in order to investigate possible relationships between the outcomes of QWL, namely job satisfaction, turnover intention, organisational commitment, and the determinant variables. This process was performed amongst the full sample of teachers (N=117), as well as amongst both the poor sample (n=60), and the below average sample (n=57). Three separate correlation matrices reflect the important relationships that were elicited (See Tables 1,2,3, Appendix 5).

Full Sample

A number of important relationships relating to the goals of the current study can be inferred from Table 1.

Job Satisfaction (1- item measure and 3-item Job Satisfaction Scale)

The 1-item measure of job satisfaction was found to have significant positive relationships with the QWL determinants of task variety ($r = .29$, $p<0.05$), decision authority ($r = .32$, $p<0.05$), future prospects ($r = .32$, $p<0.05$), support of management (SMAN)($r = .29$, $p<0.05$), support of supervisor ($r = .35$, $p<0.05$), and support of colleagues ($r = .22$, $p<0.05$). Two significant negative relationships were also found between the 1-item measure of job satisfaction and environmental risk ($r = -.31$, $p<0.05$), and role ambiguity ($r = -.24$, $p<0.05$). Furthermore, this measure of job satisfaction also has a significant positive relationship with the 1-item measure of organisational commitment ($r = .22$, $p<0.05$).

The 3-item Job Satisfaction Scale was also found to have significant positive relationships with a number of QWL determinants, including task variety ($r = .23$, $p<0.05$), decision authority ($r = .24$, $p<0.05$), job involvement ($r = .23$, $p<0.05$), future prospects ($r = .2$, $p<0.05$), support of manager ($r = .29$, $p<0.05$), support of supervisor ($r = .23$, $p<0.05$), and support of colleagues ($r = .35$, $p<0.05$). In addition the 3-item Job Satisfaction Scale has significant positive relationships with the 1-item measure of organisational commitment ($r = .19$, $p<0.05$), affective commitment ($r = .32$, $p<0.05$), continuance commitment ($r = .21$, $p<0.05$), and normative commitment ($r = .27$, $p<0.05$).

Turnover Intention

The correlation analysis revealed that turnover intention was positively and significantly related to the QWL determinants of work and time pressure ($r = .28$, $p<0.05$), physical exertion ($r = .43$, $p<0.05$), environmental risk ($r = .3$, $p<0.05$), student aggression ($r = .26$, $p<0.05$), and a lack of meaningfulness/involvement ($r = .21$, $p<0.05$). Turnover intention was found to have a significant negative relationship with future prospects ($r = -.27$, $p<0.05$).

Commitment (1-item measure)

The 1-item commitment measure was significantly and positively related to support of management ($r = .24$, $p<0.05$), and support of supervisor ($r = .19$, $p<0.05$).

Poor Sample

A number of important relationships relating to the goals of the current study can be inferred from Table 2 (See Appendix 5).

Job Satisfaction (1- item measure and 3-item Job Satisfaction Scale)

Similar to the full sample, the job satisfaction (1 item measure) was significantly and positively related to task variety ($r = .32$, $p<0.05$), decision authority ($r = .27$, $p<0.05$), support of management ($r = .28$, $p<0.05$), and support of the supervisor ($r = .38$, $p<0.05$). Furthermore, a significant negative relationship was witnessed with role ambiguity ($r = -.27$, $p<0.05$).

The 3-item job satisfaction measure was significantly and positively related to support of management ($r = .27$, $p<0.05$), support of colleagues ($r = .4$, $p<0.05$), and one component of commitment, namely normative commitment with $r = .31$ ($p<0.05$).

Turnover Intention

Within the poor sample the QWL outcome variable of turnover intention evidenced significant positive relationships with physical exertion ($r = .37$, $p<0.05$), environmental risk ($r = .38$, $p<0.05$), and lack of meaningfulness/involvement ($r = .32$, $p<0.05$). As was the result with the full sample, turnover intention was found to have a significant negative relationship with future prospects (P)($r = -.27$, $p<0.05$).

Commitment (1-item measure)

The 1- item commitment measure was only significantly related to the support of management at $r = .26$ ($p<0.05$) within the poor sample.

Below Average Sample

A number of important relationships relating to the below average sample, and hence the goals of the current study can be inferred from Table 3, Appendix 5.

Job Satisfaction (1- item measure and 3-item Job Satisfaction Scale)

Significant positive relationships exist between this measure of job satisfaction (1-item) and the QWL determinants of task variety ($r = .31$, $p<0.05$), decision authority ($r = .40$, $p<0.05$), future prospects ($r = .40$, $p< 0.05$), and the support of management and the supervisor, both with a correlation of $r = .35$

($p<0.05$). Furthermore, this measure was found to have significant positive relationships with both the 1 item commitment measure ($r = .42$, $p<0.05$), and with affective commitment ($r =. 32$, $p<0.05$).

The 3-item job satisfaction measure was positively correlated with decision authority ($r = .34$, $p>0.05$), and all three support measures i.e. support of management ($r = .29$, $p<0.05$), support of the supervisor ($r = .36$, $p<0.05$), and the support of colleagues ($r = .28$, $p<0.05$). In addition, a significant positive relationship was also evidenced with affective commitment ($r = .43$, $p< 0.05$). Finally, the 3-item job satisfaction measure was significantly and negatively associated with environmental risk ($r = -.33$, $p<0.05$).

Turnover Intention

Turnover intention is positively correlated with task variety ($r = .27$, $p<0.05$), and with time and work pressure and physical exertion, both with a correlation of $r = .40$ ($p<0.05$). Turnover intention is negatively correlated with future prospects ($r = -.28$, $p<0.05$).

Commitment (1-item measure)

The 1-item commitment measure was positively correlated with two QWL determinants, namely future prospects ($r = .27$, $p<0.05$) and supervisor support ($r =. 28$, $p<0.05$).

Section 6: Multiple Regression Analysis

Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis was performed on each QWL outcome, namely job satisfaction, turnover intention, and the 1-item commitment measure within each of the identified samples. For each analysis all QWL determinants were included in the regression equations. Furthermore, the F to enter was set at 3, and the F to remove was set at 4.75 for each of the analyses.

Full Sample

Refer to figures 1- 4 (See Appendix 6) for a summary of the regression analysis performed on the full sample.

Job satisfaction (3- item measure)

Multiple regression analysis with Job satisfaction (3-item measure) as the dependent variable revealed that one variable is significant in explaining variances in job satisfaction (R Square = 0.12). The QWL determinant that entered the regression equation was support of colleagues ($B = 0.42$, $p<0.05$).

Job Satisfaction (1-item measure)

Three QWL determinants entered this regression equation, namely support of supervisor ($B = 0.4$, $p<0.05$), environmental risk ($B = -0.4$, $p<0.05$), and future prospects ($B = 0.4$, $p<0.05$). These three variables together explain 23% of the variability in job satisfaction.

Turnover Intention

The regression analysis with turnover intention as the dependent variable indicates that physical exertion ($B = 0.4$, $p<0.05$) and future prospects ($B = -0.21$, $p<0.05$) are significant predictors explaining 22% of the variability.

Commitment (1-item measure)

Support of Management ($B = 0.25$, $p<0.05$) was the only significant predictor of the 1-item measure of commitment. The determinant explains 25% of the variability in commitment.

Poor Sample

Refer to figures 5-8 (See Appendix 6) for a summary of the regression analysis performed on the poor sample.

Job Satisfaction (3-item measure)

The multiple regression analysis with job satisfaction (3-item measure) as the QWL outcome variable revealed that support of colleagues ($B = 0.4$, $p<0.05$) was the only significant factor to enter the regression equation (R square = 0.16).

Job Satisfaction (1–item measure)

Two determinants, namely supervisor support and task variety ($B = 0.4$, $p<0.05$; $B = 0.5$, $p<0.05$) respectively were found to be significant predictors of job satisfaction (R square = 0.21).

Turnover Intention

The regression analysis with turnover intention as the dependent variable revealed that environmental risk (B = 0.4, $p<0.05$) was the only variable to enter the regression equation explaining 15% of the variability.

Commitment (1-item measure)

Within the poor sample the support of management (B = 0.2, $p<0.05$) was also found to be the only determinant to enter the regression equation for the 1-item commitment measure (R square = 0.6983027).

Below Average Sample

Refer to figures 9-12 (See Appendix 6) for a summary of the regression analysis performed on the below average sample.

Job Satisfaction (3-item measure)

Within the below average sample the multiple regression analysis performed with job satisfaction (3-item measure) as the QWL outcome variable revealed that both supervisory support (B = 0.4, $p<0.05$) and environmental risk (B = -0.4, $p<0.05$) were significant predictors of job satisfaction (R square = 0.22878296.

Job Satisfaction (1–item measure)

In relation to the 1-item measure of job satisfaction four determinants were found to be significant predictors, namely environmental risk (B = -0.7, $p<0.05$), supervisor support (B = 0.7, $p<0.05$), future prospects (B = 0.6, $p<0.05$), and job involvement (B = -0.6, $p<0.05$). Together these determinants explain 45% of the variability in job satisfaction.

Turnover Intention

The regression analysis with turnover intention as the dependent variable revealed that physical exertion (B = 0.4, $p<0.05$) was the only QWL determinant to enter the regression equation explaining 16% of the variability.

Commitment (1-item measure, affective, continuance and normative)

Supervisory support (B = 0.4, $p<0.05$) was the only significant predictor of the 1-item measure of commitment. It explains 7% of the variability.

Section 7: Content Analysis

In total 61 surveys contained answers to the open-ended question. Using content analysis 13 themes were extracted. Further analysis revealed that the theme of students was the most prominent with 26 comments being linked to it. The least prominent theme was that of job involvement, which evidenced only one comment. The full breakdown of themes, and the total number of comments per theme can be seen in the table 4 below. A sample of quotations relating to these themes will be presented when the results are discussed in Chapter 5.

Table 4. Content Analysis

Themes	Number of Comments Made
Students: Aggression/Discipline/Disinterest	26
Salary	11
Turnover Intention	5
Prospects	7
Support	6
Commitment/Dedication	6
Physical Exertion	3
Training	3
Stress	3
Work Environment	7
Job Satisfaction/Dissatisfaction	8
Involvement	1
Resources	5
Number of Surveys with Comments	91

Conclusion

This chapter has focused upon the results of the current study. The chapter was divided into seven sections each documenting the results of different statistical analyses. The first section focused upon the results of the descriptive statistics, the second upon the reliability of all measures used in the research, and the third upon factors analysis. The next three sections presented the results of the t-tests for independent samples, correlational analysis, and multiple regression analysis. The final section of the chapter focused upon the results of the content analysis.

Chapter 5: Discussion

Introduction

This chapter discusses the results that were reported in Chapter 4. The implications of these findings and their relationship with research and theory for the relevant stakeholders i.e. principals, education departments, and the government are addressed. The majority of the chapter focuses upon the results pertaining to the full sample of teachers.

The first section focuses on the implications of the calculated QWL levels of teachers from disadvantaged schools. The chapter then discusses the relationships between QWL outcomes and QWL determinants that were found in the current study. Included in these discussions are the implications of QWL outcome levels i.e. level of job satisfaction, commitment, and turnover intention amongst the full sample of teachers. Furthermore, teacher comments reflecting thoughts, views, and opinions on the relevant QWL outcomes and determinants are presented. These comments provide support for conclusions based upon statistical findings. Greater emphasis within this chapter is placed upon the relationship between job satisfaction and relevant QWL determinants due to the association between QWL and job satisfaction (Coetsee, 1987; Orpen, 1981). The final section, which focuses upon the full sample of teachers, is a discussion surrounding student aggression levels. It was considered important to include this section as a consequence of the prevalence of teacher comments pertaining to this theme that were received.

The second half of the chapter focuses upon a comparison of disadvantaged schools. Specifically, schools of different impoverishment levels were compared to determine if mean differences exist in terms of QWL determinants and outcomes. Furthermore, the relationship between QWL determinants and outcomes across these schools were assessed. The implications of these findings are presented.

QWL Levels

A primary objective of this research was to investigate QWL levels amongst teachers from disadvantaged schools. Statistical analysis revealed that the mean overall QWL score for the full sample of teachers was 2.69 (N = 117), with means closer to 4 indicating higher QWL, and scores closer to 1 lower QWL (See Table 1, Appendix 1).

This finding indicates that teachers' from disadvantaged schools experience a moderate quality of work life (QWL). It is encouraging that amidst all the difficulties that these teachers are facing, such as high rates of absenteeism amongst teachers and pupils, student tardiness, low class attendance, a lack of training in outcomes-based education delivery, a lack of material resources (Botha, 2002, Mashile & Mellet, 1996; Pager, 1996; Masondo, 2004; Nxumalo, 1995), that they nevertheless experience a moderate level of QWL. It implies that if the government and education departments can tackle these difficulties associated with teaching in disadvantaged schools in South Africa, then QWL amongst disadvantaged teachers should increase, leading to an improvement in the overall quality of education within the country (Mwamwenda, 1995). This improvement may come about due to the important outcomes of QWL that can be acquired, such as an increase in teacher job satisfaction, commitment, self efficacy, and the adoption of more positive classroom practices by teachers, which includes maintaining greater classroom discipline, presenting more feedback, and being more sensitive to student needs (Louis, 1998; Perry et al., 1995; Van Der Doef & Maes, 2002).

Besides confronting the problems associated with disadvantaged schools educational authorities can also focus upon the determinants of QWL, as a means to improving these teachers' QWL. The most important QWL determinants will be highlighted in the next section when discussing the results pertaining to the outcome variable of job satisfaction. This is because the Teacher-Specific Version of the Leiden Quality of Work Life Survey (Van Der Doef & Maes, 2002) does not contain a specific scale or item addressing QWL, and therefore emphasis has been placed upon the variable of job satisfaction, which is the most important indicator of the level of quality of work life (Coetsee, 1987). Furthermore, as suggested in the literature, job satisfaction and QWL are significantly related. Specifically, job satisfaction is regarded as a necessary condition for QWL to be high (Orpen, 1981).

Outcomes of QWL

Job Satisfaction

Job Satisfaction Levels

According to the two job satisfaction measures (1 item measure and 3 item measure, see Tables 3 & 4, Appendix 1) that were used in the study, as well as according to table 2 (Appendix 1), the findings indicate that teachers from disadvantaged schools are moderately satisfied with their jobs. This moderate level of job satisfaction is indicated by a mean of 2.62 on a 5-point scale, with a score of 1

indicating very dissatisfied, and 5 indicating very satisfied (See Table 3, Appendix 1), and a mean of 2.33 on a 4-point scale with 1 indicating lower satisfaction and 4 higher satisfaction (See Table 4, Appendix 1).

In light of the suggestion that job satisfaction is the best indicator of the level of QWL (Coetsee, 1987) consistency is found between the calculated QWL level and job satisfaction level of the sample of disadvantaged teachers, as both are moderate in degree. Furthermore, teacher comments emerging from the content analysis also lend support to the above finding. Comments pertaining to the theme of job satisfaction included the following: ***" The level of education is not valued, in terms of salary, promotion, etc and this leaves a lot of dissatisfaction to highly qualified teachers."*** A second teacher stated: ***"Having worked as a teacher for years, there is nothing that motivates me as a teacher. Everything around my job is demotivating, especially the incentives***". A more positive comment emerged from a third teacher who stated: ***"I am a hardworking person who likes his job."*** Finally, another positive comment emerged: ***"I am an intelligent person, who wants to share views with others. I have been experiencing a lot of things here, in this profession, so all in all I love teaching.***" These mixed comments (some positive and some negative) therefore lend support to the conclusion that the teachers in this study are moderately satisfied with their jobs, and experience a moderate level of QWL.

In contrast to the current research findings, past studies of job satisfaction amongst teachers note relatively high levels of job satisfaction (Ruud & Wiseman, 1962; Broiles, 1982; Laughlin, 1984; Galloway et al., cited in Borg, Riding & Falzon, 1991) (Kyriacou & Sutcliffe, 1979a), with between 70-90% of teachers reporting that they were either very satisfied or fairly satisfied with their jobs (Borg, Riding & Falzon, 1991). These studies did however take place in Europe where different educational challenges as compared to a developing country like South Africa exist. In relation to South Africa, a study by Mwamwenda (1995) suggests that teachers in the Transkei are satisfied with their jobs, although the extent of their satisfaction was not reported. In addition, the sample of teachers did point out the many factors that impede the experience of job satisfaction, such as a lack of resources, large classes, and unfavourable working conditions.

Despite the disparity between the current study findings and previous research, which may be due to contextual and methodological issues, a moderate level of job satisfaction amongst teachers from

disadvantaged schools is nevertheless encouraging. This is so as a consequence of all the previously mentioned difficulties faced by these teachers.

Relationship Between Job Satisfaction and QWL Determinants

The QWL determinants of task variety, decision authority, future prospects, job involvement, management support, supervisor support, and collegial support were all significantly and positively related to job satisfaction (See Table 1, Appendix 5). These results imply that educational authorities or principals should focus on these variables, as associated improvements may lead to greater teacher job satisfaction and QWL i.e. an increase in any of the determinants, such as an increase in the amount of support received by teachers will result in an increase in their job satisfaction. The implication for teachers is that they provide one another with support, and become more involved with their students. These are the only QWL determinants, which can be improved upon by teachers without receiving input from the relevant educational stakeholders.

In addition to the positive relationships, negative relationships were also attained in the current study. Specifically, two QWL determinants, namely environmental risk and role ambiguity were negatively related to job satisfaction (See Table 1, Appendix 5). This highlights the importance of reducing both the amount of environmental risk and stress that teachers in disadvantaged school face, as a means to improving their job satisfaction and QWL. Research shows that teachers are exposed to a variety of stressors in the workplace, such as role ambiguity, and that as role ambiguity increases so job satisfaction decreases (Conley & Woosley, 2000; Koustelios & Koustelios, 1998; Van Zyl & Pietersen, 1998).

The current study's results show that the most important predictors of job satisfaction amongst disadvantaged teachers in the Cape Town area are the support of colleagues (See figure 1, Appendix 6), the support of supervisors, environmental risk, and future prospects (See Figure 2, Appendix 6). One implication of these findings is that whilst positive relationships exist between the above identified QWL determinants and job satisfaction, those four that would best predict job satisfaction are those of support of colleagues, support of supervisors, environmental risk and future prospects. These four antecedents combined should therefore acquire concentrated effort on behalf of educational authorities and school management. Each is therefore discussed below.

Support

It was expected that support from colleagues and supervisors would not only be both positively related to job satisfaction, but also significant predictors thereof. The QWL literature highlights the importance of social integration in the workplace, which emphasises the importance of supportiveness characterised by socioemotional assistance, respect for individuality, reciprocity, trust, openness and honesty (Orpen, 1981; Walton, 1973). This idea of supportiveness should also be demonstrated within supervisory relationships (principal support), which should be both helpful and caring in nature (Bertrand, 1992; Littrell, Billingsley & Cross, 1994). Furthermore, the education-specific QWL literature also points towards the importance of the numerous interpersonal relationships that teachers have with staff members, the broader community and representatives of the community (Pelsma *et al*, 1989). In addition research on teacher job satisfaction has noted the importance of teachers' needs for affiliation, through collegial relationships (Xaba, 1996).

Besides the statistical findings, the content analysis also revealed the importance that teachers from disadvantaged schools place upon the support they receive. A number of comments were made which emphasised this theme. Some of these comments included the following***: " Your colleagues don't feel the better role that you are playing in this school. They are selfish, they don't think about others, if there is a post their concern is money more than the post, and there is no support from managers."*** Another teacher stated: ***" We (educators) do not have support systems in place especially in my current workplace."*** A third teacher stated: ***"Ever since I worked here I am still on contrast things that happen around me. I never got any support from the principal."***

Although the comments above reflect negative opinions of the support that teachers in disadvantaged schools are experiencing, the finding that support is both positively related to, and a significant predictor of job satisfaction is reassuring. Education departments, principals and the teachers themselves have a practical, inexpensive means by which to improve the job satisfaction and QWL of teachers in disadvantaged schools. It implies that teaching colleagues and principals offer support, which is characterised by socioemotional assistance, respect for individuality, reciprocity, trust, openness and honesty (Orpen, 1981; Walton, 1973). Specifically, principal support is viewed as consisting of four dimensions, namely emotional support, instrumental support, informational support, and appraisal support. Emotional support relates to principal showing teachers that they are trusted and respected. Instrumental support involves asking teachers for help on work-related issues. Informational

support considers principals as information agents for teachers, and finally appraisal support incorporates principals providing teachers with personnel appraisals (Littrell et al., 1994).

Environmental Risk

The second significant predictor of job satisfaction was environmental risk (See Figure 2, Appendix 6). This determinant was negatively and significantly related to job satisfaction implying that as environmental risk increases so a decrease in teacher job satisfaction would be experienced (See Table 1, Appendix 5). This finding is consistent with research that suggests that within teachers' work environments it is important that the necessary resources required to effectively carry out their jobs are made readily available (Pelsma, 2000). In addition these materials must be of sufficient quality so as to support the teaching process (Pelsma, 2000). Besides resources, it is imperative that the teachers' work environment is pleasant and orderly (Louis, 1998; Rossmiller, 1992; Van Der Doef & Maes, 2002).

The current study's results are consistent with assertions that safe and healthy working conditions are associated with job satisfaction and QWL (Orpen, 1981; Steyn & Van Wyk, 1999; Walton, 1973). In contrast to this, a research report by Mwamwenda (1995) reported that in both Albania, and South Africa, teachers experience job satisfaction despite working in unfavourable working conditions.

Teachers' comments also reflected concern about their working environments. One teacher stated: ***"My work experiences have shown me that each and every teacher are not feeling safe in their jobs and there is no security in the work place, you can be robbed especially in the townships"***. Another teacher made mention of the dirty work environments in which they work, which is consistent with Van Der Doef and Maes's (2002) explanation of environmental risk. Other comments pointed to the lack of resources in their working environments. One of the comments was: ***"I think teaching institutions should be empowered with teaching materials especially in black communities. We are lacking materials and our kids don't see what we are talking about. I feel they should be helped a great deal in that one."***

Comments such as these are not surprising given the history of township education, which indicates that the most salient disparity between blacks and whites has been the lack of resources afforded to disadvantaged schools (Pager, 1996). The implication is that the South African government needs to invest finances in disadvantaged schools in order to improve the resources available to these teachers, their safety and security, as well as the general conditions in which they are working. With finances

being limited, the two most important QWL determinants (as they are significant predictors of job satisfaction, and QWL) in which money should be invested by the government and education departments are in improving working conditions, and in increasing teacher salaries, which will be discussed below. The importance of increasing teachers' salaries has already been emphasised by the teacher strikes, which took place in 2004 (Smetherham, 2004).

Future Prospects

The final significant predictor of job satisfaction is future prospects. According to Van Der Doef and Maes (2002) this determinant involves the salary issue that has been such a problematic matter in South Africa (Smetherham, 2004). Accordingly, research in South Africa has revealed that most teachers refer to poor salaries as a source of their dissatisfaction (Steyn & van Wyk, 1999). Strides have already been taken to improve the poor salaries that teachers receive (Smetherham, 2004), but more improvements will need to be made to satisfy teachers, and avoid the consequences of previous strikes such as those, which took place in South Africa in 2004. A number of teacher comments reflecting the problem of poor salaries were evidenced in the content analysis. For example a teacher said: ***"The workload does not correlate with the salary."*** Another stated: ***" Teachers get low salaries as compared to the work they do"***. A third teacher stated: ***" Financially I feel we are underpaid, we cannot grow. Having a car and a house is totally impossible with the money we are earning."***

Future prospects also refers to the extent to which teachers perceive there to be a surplus of other positions, as well as opportunities in the broader filed of education (Pelsma, 2000; Van Der Doef & Maes, 2002). It therefore becomes imperative that teachers are given the opportunity to grow and develop within their jobs, which will ensure their marketability within the field of education. This growth and self development is therefore linked to future prospects and QWL (Louis, 1998; Rossmiller, 1992). The problem in South Africa concerns the availability of other positions that teachers can acquire. For example since 1994 it is estimated that up to 40 000 teaching posts have been eradicated (Pretorious, 2004). A number of teacher comments support the problems associated with growth and development and the opportunity for promotion. One teacher stated: ***"There is no growth (personal) and there are few chances of promotion"***. A second teacher stated: ***"I need to work in an environment that has space for personal and educational development."*** Finally, a teacher stated***: " I am an educator and I have been in this teaching profession for almost nineteen years, but I am still at post level one and it is very pathetic. I am a hardworker, but that means nothing to my department".***

The above discussion has focused specifically upon the QWL determinants of support, environmental risk, and future prospects. This is because these are the determinants that would best predict job satisfaction amongst teachers from disadvantaged schools. These determinants combined should therefore acquire concentrated effort on behalf of educational authorities. Whilst this is true there are other determinants, which were mentioned earlier, that are either positively or negatively related to job satisfaction, despite not being significant predictors. These determinants, namely task variety, decision authority, and job involvement are nevertheless important as associated improvements may lead to greater teacher job satisfaction and QWL, and should therefore also receive focus from educational authorities in South Africa. Furthermore, a negative relationship between role ambiguity and job satisfaction was elicited (See Table 1, Appendix 5). This implies that reducing this type of stress amongst teachers is important.

Task Variety, Decision Authority, and Job Involvement

Concentrating upon task variety implies that teachers are given the opportunity to use and develop their competencies, skills, and abilities rather than the repetition of limited, narrow skills (Orpen, 1981; Walton, 1973; Van Der Doef & Maes, 2002). Decision authority would involve educational authorities or principals encouraging teachers to participate in decision-making, which would in turn strengthen their influence and control over their work environment therefore heightening their job satisfaction and QWL (Louis, 1998; Rossmiller, 1992). This particular relationship is supported by previous job satisfaction research, which indicates that teacher job satisfaction is positively related to participative decision-making (Bogler, 2001). Finally, job involvement implies that the more involved teachers from disadvantaged schools become with their students (Van Der Doef & Maes, 2002) the greater their job satisfaction will be. One teacher comment reflecting this determinant was as follows:

> I strongly believe that I owe the community my service as an educator. It took me 8 years after matric to go for training as an educator. My life experience and background has influenced many young lives and not to lose hope. I think of leaving the teaching profession, but I doubt if I will get a job where I can influence to the better many lives as I do at school."

Stress (Role Ambiguity)

The findings of this study indicate that role ambiguity is significantly and negatively related to job satisfaction (See Table 1, Appendix 5). This implies that as the lack of clarity with regards to goals, responsibilities, and expectations amongst teachers increase (role ambiguity), so their job satisfaction

will decrease (Conley & Woosley, 2000; Gold & Roth, 1993; Koustelios & Koustelios, 1998). The result is consistent with the majority of previous studies that have examined this relationship reporting significant negative relationships between job satisfaction and role ambiguity (Conley & Woosley, 2000; Kahn et al., 1964; Koustelios & Koustelios, 1998; Rizzo et al., 1970).

Teacher comments emerging from the content analysis also highlighted the stress associated with teaching in disadvantaged schools. The only difference with these comments is that they speak of stress in general rather than specifically about role ambiguity. Some comments included a teacher stating: ***" Being professional is great but being a teacher is demanding, and some time causes stress."*** Another comment suggested that: ***"Stress is one of the immediate impacts of working in environments in which we work."***

It was unexpected that so few comments pertaining to stress would be received given that studies carried out in South Africa have confirmed that teachers experience relatively high levels of stress (Buwalda & Kok, 1991; Van Zyl & Pietersen, 1999). This finding may however be explained by the relatively moderate level of role ambiguity that was found in the current study. Specifically, statistics revealed that the mean overall score for role ambiguity was calculated at 2.53, with means closer to 4 indicating higher levels of role stress, and score closer to 1, a lower levels of role stress (See Table 9, Appendix 1). Despite this result, role ambiguity more than likely only accounts for a proportion of the stress experienced by teacher from disadvantaged schools. The overall implication of the current study findings is that educational authorities, and principals need to ensure that teachers are well informed about what their goals, tasks, expectations and responsibilities are. With this information teachers' role ambiguity should decrease and their job satisfaction increase.

Commitment

Commitment Levels

According to the commitment measure (1 item) that was used in the study (See Table 6, Appendix 1), as well as according to Table 5 (See Appendix 1) the findings indicate that teachers from disadvantaged schools are highly committed to their jobs. Comments received from teachers reflect this finding although in most cases they use the term 'dedication' as opposed to 'commitment'. This manner of expression is nevertheless consistent with the educational literatures' definition of commitment, which is viewed as involving both a teachers' personal and professional investment in

their workplace and to its goals, which is exemplified by specific behaviours suggesting increased effort and improved attitude (Louis, 1998). Examples of comments include one teacher stating: ***" I am a dedicated person to my career, but I get demotivated by the way we are being treated as teachers."*** A second teacher stated: ***" I am a disciplined person dedicated and determined in my career."*** Finally, a third teacher said: ***"I am a dedicated teacher. I used to come to work everyday and do my work."***

This result is positive due the consequences associated with organisational commitment, which includes increased attendance at work, increased performance, as well as an increased willingness to engage in organisational citizenship behaviour (Meyer & Allen, 1997). All of these outcomes are favourable within disadvantaged schools. Concomitantly, the finding is encouraging, as commitment amongst teachers has been found to be a direct behavioural response to certain determinants of QWL (Louis, 1998). This implies that by focusing upon these QWL determinants, associated increases in commitment should be witnessed. The most important of these determinants are discussed below.

Relationship Between Commitment and QWL Determinants

The QWL determinants of management support, and supervisor support were positively and significantly related to commitment (See Table 1, Appendix 5). In addition, it was elicited that the support of management was the only significant predictor of commitment (See figure 4, Appendix 6). This finding is consistent with affective commitment research, which has demonstrated that supportiveness is an antecedent of this component of commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997). This implies that an increase in the support given to teachers by either principals or education departments will improve the commitment levels of teachers in disadvantaged schools. Again this is an encouraging finding as providing support is an inexpensive means by which to improve both the QWL, and commitment levels of teachers in disadvantaged schools.

Turnover Intention

Turnover Intention Levels

The third important outcome of QWL is turnover intention. The current study findings indicate that teachers from disadvantaged schools have a moderate level of turnover intention at a mean of 2.75 (See Table 7, Appendix 1). The result is slightly above the median, and therefore headed in the direction of higher turnover intention, which is reflected by a mean score of 4. Teacher comments also

demonstrate turnover intention amongst the teachers. Comments received include: ***"This is not a nice job. I wish I could quit."*** A second comment stated: ***"I think of leaving the teaching profession, but I doubt if I will get a job where I can influence to the better many lives as I do at school."*** A final pertinent comment stated: ***"Teaching is not challenging at all. I would like to quit, but the problem is debts."***

In light of concern in South Africa about the outflow of teachers to other countries, the shortage of qualified teachers, high teacher turnover rates and a decrease in the number of matriculants entering the teaching profession, the current study findings in relation to turnover intention levels are relatively positive (Hayward, 2002; Hofmeyer, 2001; Lemmer & Badenhorst, 2001; Xaba, 2003). A moderate level of turnover intention, in addition to a minimal number of comments indicating an intention to quit, suggests that teachers within disadvantaged schools in the Cape Town area may continue with their teaching jobs despite many hardships. This is encouraging and implies that concentrated focus upon the determinants of turnover intention can improve the situation further.

Relationship Between Turnover Intention and QWL Determinants

Turnover intention was positively and significantly related to work and time pressure, physical exertion, environmental risk, student aggression and a lack of meaningfulness/involvement (See Table 1, Appendix 5). This implies that as each of these determinants increase so teachers' intention to leave their jobs will increase. Furthermore, turnover intention was negatively related to future prospects, which implies that as teachers' opportunities for career development and promotion within their current jobs increase, as well as when their salaries improve (Van Der Doef & Maes, 2002) they will be less likely to quit their jobs.

The most important predictors of turnover intention amongst teachers from disadvantaged schools are future prospects and physical exertion. These two QWL determinants therefore deserve concentrated effort on behalf of the government, education departments, and principals of schools. As already mentioned, future prospects entails improving teachers' opportunities for promotion and career development, as well as increasing their salaries.

The QWL determinant of physical exertion refers to the tiredness that teacher's experience, as a consequence of the physical effort they put into their jobs (Van Der Doef & Maes, 2002). The additional challenges faced by teachers from disadvantaged schools, such as insufficient training in

outcomes-based education, the problems of student discipline, and teaching with insufficient resources (Botha, 2002; Matsitsa, 1995; Pretoriuos, 2003), all contribute to making their jobs physically tiring. Reducing their physical exertion levels, as a means to decease their turnover intention implies that education departments, and principals ensure that sufficient training and the necessary resources are provided. It also requires that the necessary support is available to teachers when needed.

Furthermore, significantly high student-teacher ratios in disadvantaged schools are problematic, and often teachers may be responsible for classes of up to 70 pupils (Hayard, 2002; Lethoko, Heystek, & Maree, 2001; Mwamwenda, 1995; Ngidi & Sibaya, 2002; Pretorious, 2003). This highlights the importance of focusing upon teacher shortages within disadvantaged schools, as a means of reducing these teachers' physical tiredness, and exertion levels.

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QWL Determinant of Student Aggression

Whilst it was not one of the initial study objectives to focus specifically on any QWL determinant, the content analysis revealed that out of a total of 91 comments that were received, 26 of them pertained to the theme of student aggression/discipline/disinterest. As a consequence of its' prevalence it was deemed appropriate to discuss this QWL determinant further.

Student Aggression Levels

Across the full sample of teachers the mean calculation for student aggression was 3.00, with means closer to 4 indicating higher student aggression, and scores closer to 1 indicating lower student aggression (See Table 8, Appendix 1). This result suggests that teachers from disadvantaged schools view student aggression levels as being high, and therefore problematic. This finding is consistent with research suggesting that teachers working in disadvantaged communities are faced with students who have acquired negative attitudes towards their schools, who are more likely to expression aggression and violence more readily at a younger age, and who are more likely to carry guns, belong to gangs and threaten teachers (Liddell, Kemp & Moema, 1994; Mashile & Mellet, 1996; Pretoriuos, 2003; Zulu et al., 2004). All of this translates into disadvantaged school environments lacking in student discipline, motivation and respect for teachers (Matsitsa, 1995).

It is therefore unsurprising that so many comments were received reflecting the problem of student aggression/discipline/disinterest. It is however interesting to note, given both the calculated student

aggression levels and the number of comments relating to this theme, that student aggression was only significantly associated with one outcome of QWL, namely turnover intention, and was not a significant predictor of any outcome of QWL.

Some of the comments highlighting the problem of student aggression/discipline/disinterest included the following***: "It is very disturbing to be a teacher these days. Although I am having experience it is difficult to conduct rude, and aggressive learners."*** A second teacher stated: ***"teachers are abused emotionally and physically by the learners ill discipline and misconduct."*** Another teacher said***: "my job is very much frustrating. It is life threatening because we are teaching 'hooligans' who don't even care about their own lives."*** A fourth teacher commented: ***"when I chose the teaching profession in the past years I did not know that it's about risking my life. I love what I'm doing i.e. teaching and I'm always willing to go an extra mile in helping the learners to achieve, but we are dealing with learners which are victims of substance abuse etc. Sometime they display their anger in a way which is uncontrollable."*** Finally a teacher stated***: "the grade 12's that I'm teaching this year have made me not to care anymore because they are not serious at all. They don't value their education. For the first time in my life I have been demotivated because of their attitude and lack of seriousness."***

These comments suggest that teachers in disadvantaged schools are working in environments that are not conducive to a culture of teaching and learning. In terms of maintaining discipline some teachers believe that the abolishment of corporal punishment has made this task even more difficult. This belief was confirmed in a study by Pager (1996) that examined the culture of learning in Khayelitsha secondary schools. Specifically, it was revealed that most of the interviewed teachers were in favour of corporal punishment believing it to be a necessary tool for ensuring discipline (Pager, 1996).

Whilst within this study student aggression is not associated with or a significant predictor of important QWL outcomes, such as job satisfaction of commitment it is still a problematic issue faced by teachers from disadvantaged schools. It is important that teachers feel safe in their working environments and that student aggression is eradicated. This may be achieved through clear disciplinary procedures, and orderliness imposed by principals and teachers (Lethoko et al, 2001). Furthermore, parental support, participation and collaboration are essential in developing a culture of learning and teaching in disadvantaged schools (Lethoko et al., 2001).

A Comparison of Disadvantaged Schools

A secondary objective of this study was to determine whether any significant mean differences exist, in terms of the determinants and outcomes of QWL, across schools differing in degrees of impoverishment. In addition, the relationship between QWL determinants and outcomes across these types of schools were examined. Accordingly, two independent samples were therefore compared, with one sample consisting of schools considered to be poor, and the other of schools considered being below average, according the Poverty and Resourcing Index (PRI) found within the 'Blue Audit'.

The study results indicate that only the QWL determinant of future prospects is significantly different across the poor and below average samples (See Table 1, Appendix 4). This finding indicates that teachers from below average schools have greater opportunity for promotion and career development than teachers from schools considered to be more impoverished. The overall results of the t-tests suggest that there is little difference between these types of schools. Most importantly, there is no significant difference between the mean job satisfaction levels across the two samples, which may indicate that the QWL level of these teachers are similar. This conclusion is drawn upon the suggestion that job satisfaction is the best indicator of the level of QWL (Coetsee, 1987).

However, in terms of the relationships between QWL determinants and the outcomes of QWL, some differences were evidenced. Furthermore, some differences were also elicited in terms of the significant predictors of QWL outcomes across the two samples.

Relationship Between Job Satisfaction and QWL Determinants

Job satisfaction within the below average sample was correlated with task variety, decision authority, future prospects, and the support of management, supervisors and colleagues (See Table 3, Appendix 5). Within the poor sample similar relationships were elicited with the exception of future prospects. In addition a negative relationship between job satisfaction and role ambiguity was witnessed within the poor sample (See Table 2, Appendix 5). This implies that as the amount of stress (role ambiguity) that teachers experience increases so their job satisfaction will decrease.

Within the below average sample the QWL determinants of supervisory support, environmental risk, future prospects and job involvement were significant predictors. In the poor sample the support of colleagues, and supervisors and task variety entered the regression equation (See Figures 5,6,11,12

Appendix 6). These findings suggest that there are many similarities, and some differences between the below average and poor samples in terms of the relationship between job satisfaction and QWL determinants. The implications are that the various stakeholders should be aware that different QWL determinants may have different affects upon the acquisition of job satisfaction, and focusing upon those most relevant for the particular type of school is necessary. Furthermore, these results again highlight the important role that support plays in creating jobs that are more satisfying for teachers from disadvantaged schools.

Relationship Between Commitment and QWL Determinants

Within the below average sample commitment was associated with future prospects and the supervisor support. Within the poor sample it was associated with management support (See Tables 2,3, Appendix 5). Some difference is therefore witnessed between the two samples, with support being the common QWL determinant. Consistent with this, supervisory support was the only significant predictor of commitment in the below average sample, and management support was the only predictor within the poor sample (See Figures 8 & 12, Appendix, 6).

Support, although different kinds thereof, is therefore the QWL determinant that needs to be focused upon when wanting to acquire greater commitment from teachers within both types of disadvantaged school.

Relationship Between Commitment and Turnover Intention

Within the below average sample, turnover intention was positively correlated with task variety, time and work pressure, and physical exertion. Within the poor sample, turnover intention was positively correlated with physical exertion, environmental risk, and a lack of involvement. Within both samples turnover intention was negatively related to future prospects (See Table 2,3, Appendix 5).

It is interesting that turnover intention was positively related with task variety within the below average sample, as this implies that as teachers' task variety increase so their intention to quit increases. This finding is inconsistent with research suggesting that task/skill variety allows individuals the opportunity to develop their human capacities and experience QWL (Orpen, 1981; Walton 1973), ultimately leading to an increase in job satisfaction, and a decrease in turnover intention. The only possible explanation for this is the positive correlation (although insignificantly so) between task

variety and physical exertion ($r = 0.24$, $p<0.05$), which implies that as task variety increases so do teachers' physical exertion levels, which increases their turnover intention. Despite this result, educational authorities overall must be aware that in different types of disadvantaged schools there may be some difference in terms of the QWL determinants that are associated with turnover intention.

Regarding the results of the regression analysis within these two types of disadvantaged schools, physical exertion was the only significant predictor of turnover intention in the below average sample, and environmental risk was the only predictor within the poor sample (See Figure 7 &11, Appendix 6). These results suggest that there are differences between these two samples in relation to turnover intention. Within the below average sample focus must be on reducing the workload of these teachers to ensure that they do not quit their jobs. Within the poor sample emphasis must be placed upon ensuring that teachers feel more secure in their workplace, that the environmental conditions of the school are improved and that sufficient resources are made available to teachers working in the most impoverished of schools.

The comparative analysis has therefore revealed mixed findings pertaining to the QWL of teachers across different types of disadvantaged schools. The t-test results revealed little difference in terms of the manner in which teachers experience the various determinants and outcomes of OWL i.e. mean scores. Differences were however elicited when focusing upon the relationship between QWL determinants and QWL outcomes, across the below average and poor samples. The overriding implication for government, education departments and principals is that they are aware that the impoverishment level of a disadvantaged school impacts upon the attention that must be given to different QWL determinants. Furthermore, and consistent with current study's previous findings, support appears to the most significant QWL determinant.

Conclusion

This chapter has discussed the results of the current study. It achieved this in two ways. Firstly, it focused upon the results relating to the full sample of teachers. This included concentrating upon the implications of the calculated QWL levels of teachers, and upon the relationships between QWL outcomes and QWL determinants. Furthermore, the implications of the calculated levels of the outcomes of QWL were discussed. The final section addressing the full sample of teachers, presented a discussion surrounding student aggression levels. It was considered important to include this section, as a consequence of the prevalence of teacher comments pertaining to this theme that were received.

The second half of the chapter focused upon a comparison of disadvantaged schools. This comparison was carried by focusing upon the implications of the t-tests that were carried out, and by discussing the various relationships between the QWL outcomes and determinants within each type of disadvantaged school.

Chapter 6: Limitations and Recommendations

Introduction

This chapter is divided into three sections. The first focuses upon the limitations of current study. The second presents a number of recommendations for future research, such as focus groups, more representative samples and the sanctioning of research. The next section focuses upon the recommendations for the various stakeholders, including the government, education departments, principals, and teachers. Finally, concluding comments are made.

Limitations

A number of methodological limitations exist within this study. One limitation of the survey method pertains to the fact that there is no control over the independent variable (Simon, 1978).

In terms of the sampling process, the central weakness of the non-probability sampling procedure that was used in the current study is its' inherent subjectivity, which not only limits the sample from being representative, but also precludes the development of a theoretical framework (Kalton, 1983). This is because the sample is chosen by the researcher and hence can only be assessed by subjective evaluation, and not by assumption-free statistical methods, which contain little or no bias (Kalton, 1983). Having said this, the current study required that specific types of schools constituted the research sample. Consequently, it had to be selected by the researcher.

A further methodological limitation of the study involves the selection of the two-sub samples, which constitutes the full sample of teachers. The selection of these sub-samples was based upon information, including their scores on the Poverty and Resourcing Index (PRI), contained in the full Statistical Report for Public Ordinary Schools (2001). Specifically, the schools in each sub-sample were selected according to manner in which they had performed on the Poverty and Resourcing Index (PRI), and where they were located. The major limitation is that these results were acquired in 2001, and hence it is possible that their scores on the PRI have since changed. The Western Cape Education Department could only allow access to the full Statistical Report for Public Ordinary Schools (2001) due to privacy concerns, and hence any sample selection that could be used as a basis for comparison i.e. across

different types/levels of disadvantaged school according to the PRI, had to be based upon the results of 2001.Consequently, the comparative analysis only constituted a sub-goal of the study.

There are limitations associated with some of the statistical techniques that were used. Principal Components Analysis may produce less accurate final estimates of communality, as does Common Factor Analysis (Floyd & Widaman, 1995). Concomitantly, Gorsuch (1983) suggests that using Principal Components Analysis can lead to spuriously high factor loadings and misinterpretations of the data especially when there are few variables in the analysis.

In terms of Stepwise Multiple Regression a number of problems exist. The method can sometimes yield R-squared values that are badly biased in the sense that they are higher than they should be (Sribney, 1998). In addition, stepwise methods will not necessarily produce the best model if there are redundant predictors, and stepwise methods will frequently fail when applied to new datasets (Sribney, 1998). Furthermore, models identified by stepwise methods have an increased risk of capitalising on chance features of the data (Sribney, 1998).

It is evident from the Factor Analyses conducted in the current study that in most of the measurement models very little of the total variance is explained (sometimes as low as 1.2% and often between 2-4%). This is a major limitation of the current study, and may explain the very small Correlation coefficients that were obtained. Literature indicates that Correlations of .4 and below are considered low (Ajzen, 1991). The majority of the Correlation coefficients obtained in this study were below .4 (See Appendix 5). Interpretations of the practical significance of these results should therefore be made in light of this. For example, whilst many of the correlations between the QWL outcome variables i.e. job satisfaction, turnover, and commitment, and the QWL determinants are either significantly positive or negative, these relationships are weak. The implications are that whilst these relationships exist their practical usefulness for educational stakeholders may be limited.

The utilisation of the LQWQ-Teacher version may have been problematic, although measures were taken to minimise such limitation. Whilst a pilot study was conducted with a disadvantaged school, and no problems surrounding the language of the survey were raised, the fact that the survey was developed abroad, and that the home language of the majority of participants is Xhosa, may be of concern.

Assessing the overall QWL of the teachers, and across the two sub-samples was made difficult due to the survey excluding a composite QWL score. Developing this composite score was considered to be beyond the scope of this research, and therefore an alternate process was followed to determine overall QWL.

Finally, there are also disadvantages and challenges associated with using open-ended questions. These questions can be difficult to answer and even more difficult to analyse (Oppenheim, 1996). The data received are essentially narratives, and must therefore be interpreted and coded, which can be a troublesome and lengthy process (Czaja & Blair, 1996). Furthermore, they may lead to the gathering of worthless or irrelevant material (Bailey, 1987).

Future Research

It is recommended that future research into the QWL of teachers from disadvantaged schools make use of focus groups. The purpose of such interviews would be to conduct discussions with multiple teachers at one time concerning aspects about what is being studied (Fowler, 1993).

On numerous occasions within this research the message was conveyed that questions were at times restrictive, and that elaboration on the part of the participants was desired. Whilst the open – ended question at the end of the survey provided an opportunity for teachers to expand and elaborate, an interview would secure a wealth of additional information. This would aid the researcher in gaining a richer and more holistic perspective on the QWL of teachers from disadvantaged schools. In addition, the use of focus groups implies interviewing more teachers in less time. The teachers within this research made frequent mention of their time constraints, and therefore focus groups may provide a means to source a lot of information in a limited time period.

A further recommendation is that a more representative sample of teachers from disadvantaged schools across South Africa be used. Whilst this would not be an easy undertaking it is felt that if a number of disadvantaged communities were used as the basis for selecting a sample of teachers, it would provide educational stakeholders with a rich understanding of their QWL. It is possible that differences in the QWL of teachers across disadvantaged schools in South Africa exist. These differences may relate to the degree to which they experience QWL, as well as to the determinants of QWL. Such differences could be a function of context, and therefore needs to be explored further.

A study as comprehensive as this would provide impetus to move beyond purely investigative research to research that uncovers the best approaches to implementing practical solutions within disadvantaged schools across South Africa. In other words, future research should make use of research findings, as a means to improving teachers QWL. For example, within the current study the QWL determinant of support was very salient, and therefore future research should investigate the best approaches to ensuring teachers have the necessary support they need.

A final recommendation pertains to the sanctioning of research. The current study has revealed the many challenges faced by teachers from disadvantaged schools, and how these impact upon their QWL. If educational stakeholders i.e. government, education departments, schools, public, wish to see improvements made to the quality of education that is delivered within these schools than it is imperative that these stakeholders sanction research. This sanctioning should be done in such a manner that it forms part of a countrywide strategy to improve education within disadvantaged communities in South Africa. This would ensure that sufficient sized samples and participation is guaranteed.

The teachers within the current study often made reference to the fact that the education departments pay little attention to research that is carried out. This sentiment needs to be changed, and the best manner in which to achieve this is through the education departments and other relevant stakeholders becoming involved in relevant research that will provide practical tools and solutions that can be implemented. Improving the quality of education depends to a large extent on the ability, and commitment of teachers (Asmal & James, 2001). It is therefore imperative that teachers are willing to participate in research to such an extent that it can comprehensively reveal what underpins teachers' ability and commitment in the context of disadvantaged schools.

Stakeholders (Government, Education Departments, Principals, Teachers)

The current study revealed that teachers from disadvantaged schools in the Cape Town area experience a moderate level of QWL. This is an encouraging finding, which implies that with increased effort the situation could improve. This effort should tackle both the challenges faced by these teachers, and the associated determinants of QWL. Whilst a number of determinants were found in the study, the one which is perhaps the least expensive to implement is that of support. Different types of support i.e.

supervisor, and collegial support, were found to be significant predictors of job satisfaction. Support should therefore be targeted as a key determinant for the development of job satisfaction and QWL. Specifically, the various stakeholders must encourage support, which is characterised by socioemotional assistance, respect for individuality, reciprocity, trust, openness and honesty (Orpen, 1981; Walton, 1973). This involves establishing a culture within disadvantaged schools that nurtures and fosters the development and maintenance of support. A central driving force behind this culture of support must be the teachers themselves. As a already mentioned, collegial support was found to be a determinant of job satisfaction, and therefore by offering their support teachers can improve their colleagues QWL, ultimately leading to an overall improvement of education within these schools.

Besides the importance of support, other QWL determinants should be the focus of the various stakeholders. These include environmental risk, future prospects, task variety, decision authority, job involvement, and stress reduction. Environmental risk, and future prospects are determinants that need to be addressed by the government and education departments. Reducing environmental risk implies the provision of additional resources, and the establishment of safe and healthy working conditions (Orpen, 1981; Pelsma, 2000; Steyn & Van Wyk, 1999; Walton, 1973). Both of these require funding, and therefore lies in the realm of the government and education departments. Furthermore, the improvement of future prospects is in part contingent upon improving teachers' salaries (Van Der Doef & Maes, 2002), and is therefore also a funding issue. In terms of task variety, decision authority, and stress management, the education departments in conjunction with school representatives should deal with these. Finally, job involvement is another determinant that teachers themselves can focus on. By becoming more involved with their students (Van Der Doef & Maes, 2002), improvements in job satisfaction and QWL may be seen.

Conclusion

The central goal of the current study was to investigate the quality of work life (QWL) amongst teachers from disadvantaged schools in the Cape Town area. This research has taken place within an educational context that has been significantly impacted upon by the process of democratisation that has occurred in South Africa over the last decade. Amidst all the difficulties faced by teachers from disadvantaged schools the results are encouraging, and hopefully contribute to what will become a growing body of research into the field.

Perhaps the most practical and motivating finding was the prominence of support in determining both job satisfaction and QWL. It is therefore suggested that this factor be the major focus of efforts to improve the QWL of teachers from disadvantaged schools. In addition, this study has added to body of research focusing upon teachers' job satisfaction. It has revealed the importance of the QWL determinants of task variety, decision authority, future prospects, job involvement, and support, as a means to increase job satisfaction amongst teachers. Furthermore, the research has highlighted the need to minimise stress amongst teachers, as a means to improve their job satisfaction and QWL. Commitment and turnover intention, also important outcomes of QWL were investigated. Regarding turnover intention the QWL determinants of work and time pressure, physical exertion, environmental risk, student aggression and a lack of meaningfulness/involvement were all found to have significant relationships with the QWL outcome. In terms of commitment, again support was found to be the most significant predictor.

The study also made use of an open-ended question, which allowed the teachers to expand upon their ideas and thoughts in relation to their profession. The themes and comments that emerged in most cases provided support for the statistical findings, with the most pervasive theme being that of student aggression/discipline. Support was again a prominent theme.

A secondary goal of the study was to compare different levels of disadvantaged schools. This analysis revealed mixed findings pertaining to teachers' QWL across different types of disadvantaged schools. At best it is suggested that government, education departments and principals are aware that the impoverishment level of a disadvantaged school impacts upon the importance that must be given to different QWL determinants.

It is hoped that this research has contributed to an improved understanding of QWL amongst teachers from disadvantaged schools. Furthermore, it is hoped that the recommendations made for future research and to the various stakeholders within this field, are taken heed of. Both the improvement of teachers' from disadvantaged schools QWL, and the quality of education is contingent upon translating findings into practical solutions.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1: DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

LEVELS OF QWL AMONGST DISSADVANTAGED TEACHERS

Table 1.

	Valid N	Mean
Full Sample	117	2.69
Poor Sample	60	2.68
Below Ave Sample	57	2.71

OUTCOMES OF QWL

Levels of Job Satisfaction (JS 1 item measure):

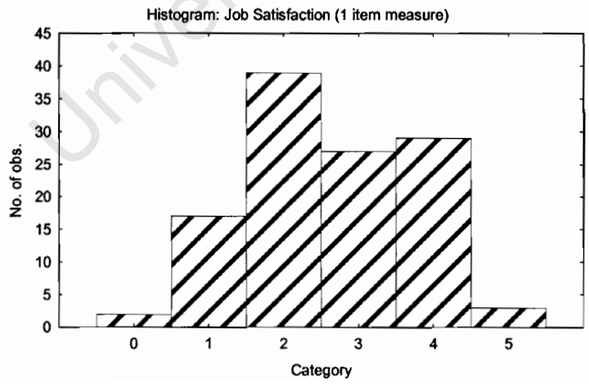
Table *2. Full Sample*

0	Missing	**2%**
1	Very Dissatisfied	**15%**
2	Dissatisfied	**33%**
3	Neutral	**22%**
4	Satisfied	**25%**
5	Very Satisfied	**3%**

Table 3.

1- item measure	Valid N	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Std. Dev.
JS- Full Sample	117	2.62	0	5	1.135072
JS- Poor Sample	60	2.53	0	4	1.111827
JS- Below Ave. Sample	57	2.72	0	5	1.161194

Figure 1. *Full Sample*



Levels of Job Satisfaction (3 item measure):

Table 4.

	Valid N	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Std. Dev.
JS- Full Sample	117	**2.33**	1	4	0.792666
JS- Poor Sample	60	**2.31**	1	4	0.837654
JS- Below Ave. Sample	57	**2.35**	1	4	0.749129

Levels of Commitment (1 item measure):

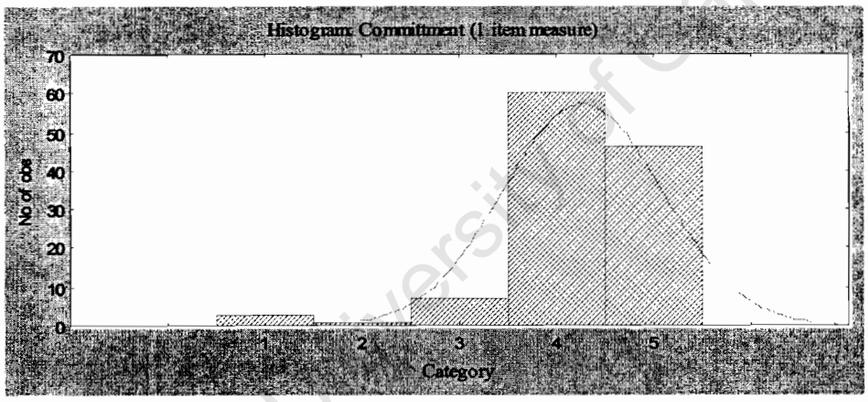
Table 5. ***Full Sample***

0	Missing	**0%**
1	Very Uncommitted	**3%**
2	Uncommitted	**1%**
3	Neutral	**6%**
4	Committed	**51%**
5	Very Committed	**39%**

Table 6.

1-item measure	Valid N	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Std. Dev.
Full Sample	117	**4.239316**	1	5	0.816316
Poor Sample	60	**4.333333**	1	5	0.728748
Below Ave. Sample	57	**4.140351**	1	5	0.895197

Figure 2. ***Full Sample***



Levels of Turnover Intention:

Table 7.

	Valid N	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Std. Dev.
Full Sample	117	**2.747863**	1	4	0.621538
Poor Sample	60	**2.808333**	1	4	0.643360
Below Ave. Sample	57	**2.684211**	1	4	0.596729

DETERMINANTS OF QWL

Levels of Student Aggression:

Table 8.

	Valid N	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Std. Dev.
Full Sample	117	**3.002137**	1	4	0.704432
Poor Sample	60	**3.045833**	1	4	0.776361
Below Ave. Sample	57	**2.956140**	2	4	0.623432

Levels of Stress (Role Ambiguity):

Table 9.

	Valid N	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Std. Dev.
Full Sample	117	**2.527778**	1	4	0.718279
Poor Sample	60	**2.470833**	1	4	0.788008
Below Ave. Sample	57	**2.587719**	1	4	0.638237

DEMOGRAPHIC BREAKDOWN

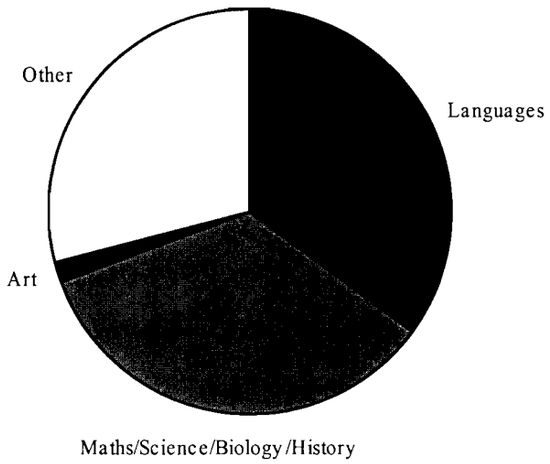
Table 10. ***Tenure At School:***

	Count	%
< 1 yr	**17**	**15**
1-5 yrs	**44**	**38**
5-10 yrs	**30**	**26**
> 10 yrs	**21**	**17**
Missing	**5**	**4**

Table 11. ***Marital Status of Teachers:***

	Count	%
Single	**61**	**52**
Married or living together	**51**	**44**
Divorced or separated	**4**	**3**
Widowed	**0**	**0**
Missing	**1**	**1**

Pie Chart 1. ***Subjects Taught by Teachers:***



APPENDIX 2: RELIABILITY ANALYSIS

Table 1. Turnover Intention

Summary for scale: Mean=10.9915 Std.Dv.=2.48615 Valid N: 117
Cronbach alpha: .377 Standardized alpha: .384725
Average inter-item corr.: .14

Variable	Mean if deleted	Var. if deleted	StDv. if deleted	Itm-Totl Correl.	Alpha if deleted
TO1	8.128205	4.333991	2.081824	0.146078	0.375051
TO2	8.743589	4.293229	2.072011	0.150986	0.370342
TO3	8.376068	4.200453	2.049501	0.184444	0.332818
TO4	7.726496	3.822631	1.955155	0.349421	0.154048

Table 2. Task Variety

Summary for scale: Mean=10.7009 Std.Dv.=2.02257 Valid N: 117
Cronbach alpha: .27 Standardized alpha: .262710
Average inter-item corr.: .08

Variable	Mean if deleted	Var. if deleted	StDv. if deleted	Itm-Totl Correl.	Alpha if deleted
TV1	7.529914	2.967054	1.722514	0.147743	0.205559
TV2	7.948718	2.270874	1.506942	0.281464	0.000000
TV3	8.692307	3.187376	1.785323	0.046664	0.320820
TV4	7.931624	2.918402	1.708333	0.080896	0.290238

Table 3. Job Satisfaction

Summary for scale: Mean=9.75214 Std.Dv.=2.70027 Valid N: 117
Cronbach alpha: .65 Standardized alpha: .646791
Average inter-item corr.: .32

Variable	Mean if deleted	Var. if deleted	StDv. if deleted	Itm-Totl Correl.	Alpha if deleted
JS1	6.982906	5.606546	2.367815	0.229769	0.703250
JS2	7.538462	4.077580	2.019302	0.472978	0.558207
JS3	7.649573	3.885748	1.971230	0.550695	0.495582
JS4	7.085470	4.573892	2.138666	0.502747	0.543634

Table 4. Role Ambiguity

Summary for scale: Mean=12.1709 Std.Dv.=3.09418 Valid N: 117
Cronbach alpha: .66 Standardized alpha: .653807
Average inter-item corr.: .28

Variable	Mean if deleted	Var. if deleted	StDv. if deleted	Itm-Totl Correl.	Alpha if deleted
RA1	10.11111	8.184236	2.860810	0.130400	0.719377
RA2	9.54701	6.658047	2.580319	0.380374	0.628060
RA3	9.59829	5.983929	2.446207	0.555992	0.543236
RA4	9.86325	6.049675	2.459609	0.474366	0.582510
RA5	9.56410	6.057857	2.461271	0.557921	0.544003

APPENDIX 3: FACTOR ANALYSIS

Figure 1: Job Satisfaction

Factor Loadings (Varimax normalized)
Extraction: Principal components
(Marked loadings are > .700000)

	Factor 1
JS2	-0.77494
JS3	-0.81622
JS4	-0.79073
EXPL VAR	1.891996
Prp. Totl	0.630665

Figure 2: Turnover Intention

Factor Loadings (Varimax normalized)
Extraction: Principal components
(Marked loadings are > .600000)

	Factor 1	Factor 2
TO1	0.867881	-0.16533
TO2	0.00546	0.684117
TO3	0.073262	0.764151
TO4	0.71101	0.381616
EXPL VAR	1.264149	1.224909
Prp. Totl	0.316037	0.306227

Figure 3: Organisational Commitment

Factor Loadings (Varimax normalized)
Extraction: Principal components
(Marked loadings are > .500000)

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
ACO1	0.523134	0.362159	0.084421
ACO2	0.627254	-0.0836	0.485205
ACO3	0.758794	0.249044	0.209443
ACO4	0.707717	0.213492	0.354841
ACO5	0.78239	0.277657	0.177936
ACO6	0.762499	0.266329	0.155079
CCO1	0.505908	0.203023	0.391227
CCO2	0.294284	0.394346	0.639122
CCO3	0.069743	0.402922	0.70213
CCO4	0.263896	0.178401	0.786254
CCO5	0.201966	0.276819	0.649168
CCO6	0.311436	0.052046	0.696582
NCO1	0.068093	0.595006	0.466667
NCO2	0.2424	0.827247	0.137577
NCO3	0.139033	0.819438	0.229658
NCO4	0.516877	0.688011	0.182545
NCO5	0.37153	0.711832	0.277462
NCO6	0.482865	0.679949	0.24836
EXPL VAR	4.213201	4.016258	3.508842
Prp. Totl	0.234067	0.223125	0.194936

Figure 4: Task Variety

Factor Loadings (Varimax normalized)
Extraction: Principal components
(Marked loadings are > .500000)

	Factor 1
TV1	0.586714
TV2	0.795223
TV4	0.551306
EXPL VAR	1.280551
Prp. Totl	0.42685

Figure 5: Decision Authority

Factor Loadings (Varimax normalized)
Extraction: Principal components
(Marked loadings are > .400000)

	Factor 1	Factor 2
DA1	-0.21803	0.680279
DA2	0.717124	0.068004
DA3	0.220969	0.639762
DA4	0.58383	-0.04764
DA5	0.630018	0.281695
DA6	0.206305	0.65447
DA7	0.478374	0.454126
EXPL VAR	1.619813	1.592882
Prp. Totl	0.231402	0.227555

Figure 6: Time Pressure

Factor Loadings (Varimax normalized)
Extraction: Principal components
(Marked loadings are > .500000)

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
TP1	0.675517	0.12179	0.007009
TP2	0.011428	-0.42295	0.699361
TP3	0.164381	-0.85954	0.094032
TP4	0.617401	-0.3205	0.218365
TP5	0.497639	0.421111	0.526443
TP6	0.047226	0.022987	0.805331
TP7	0.732081	-0.22228	-0.00707
EXPL VAR	1.650476	1.262512	1.47143
Prp. Totl	0.235782	0.180359	0.210204

Figure 7: Physical Exertion

Factor Loadings (Varimax normalized)
Extraction: Principal components
(Marked loadings are > .600000)

	Factor 1
PE1	-0.67681
PE2	-0.80062
PE3	-0.84886
PE4	-0.75936
EXPL VAR	2.396242
Prp. Totl	0.599061

Figure 8: Environmental Risk

Factor Loadings (Varimax normalized)
Extraction: Principal components
(Marked loadings are > .400000)

	Factor 1	Factor 2
ER1	0.876451	-0.01645
ER2	0.766951	0.367221
ER3	-0.12945	0.860683
ER4	0.401148	0.701416
ER5	0.237284	0.452835
EXPL VAR	1.590361	1.572941
Prp. Totl	0.318072	0.314588

Figure 9: Role Ambiguity

Factor Loadings (Varimax normalized)
Extraction: Principal components
(Marked loadings are > .600000)

	Factor 1
RA2	-0.62301
RA3	-0.82102
RA4	-0.7669
RA5	-0.73363
EXPL VAR	2.188554
Prp. Totl	0.547138

Figure 10: Student Aggression

Factor Loadings (Varimax normalized)
Extraction: Principal components
(Marked loadings are > .600000)

	Factor 1
SA1	-0.8097
SA2	-0.68558
SA3	-0.86205
SA4	-0.73501
EXPL VAR	2.409005
Prp. Totl	0.602251

Figure 11: Involvement

Factor Loadings (Varimax normalized)
Extraction: Principal components
(Marked loadings are > .500000)

	Factor 1
I1	-0.55899
I2	-0.7085
I3	-0.73568
I4	-0.7972
I5	-0.80088
EXPL VAR	2.632597
Prp. Totl	0.526519

Figure 12: Job Insecurity

Factor Loadings (Varimax normalized)
Extraction: Principal components
(Marked loadings are > .800000)

	Factor 1	Factor 2
INSEC1	0.843936	0.09113
INSEC2	0.866378	0.099737
INSEC3	0.306974	0.801248
INSEC4	-0.05457	0.89829
EXPL VAR	1.56005	1.467176
Prp. Totl	0.390012	0.366794

Figure 13: Future Prospects

Factor Loadings (Varimax normalized)
Extraction: Principal components
(Marked loadings are > .700000)

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
P1	0.815895	0.103529	-0.2166
P2	0.852956	-0.04383	0.106175
P3	0.757527	0.086999	0.29764
P4	0.02778	0.702028	0.088876
P5	0.052718	0.770739	-0.07585
P6	0.076157	0.016218	0.957489
EXPL VAR	1.976417	1.107354	1.077217
Prp. Totl	0.329403	0.184559	0.179536

Figure 14: Training

Factor Loadings (Varimax normalized)
Extraction: Principal components
(Marked loadings are > .700000)

	Factor 1
T1	-0.7985
T2	-0.81989
T3	-0.8338
EXPL VAR	2.00504
Prp. Totl	0.668347

Figure 15: Support Management

Factor Loadings (Varimax normalized)
Extraction: Principal components
(Marked loadings are > .600000)

	Factor 1
SMAN1	-0.8906
SMAN2	-0.87643
SMAN3	-0.88807
SMAN4	-0.64673
EXPL VAR	2.768218
Prp. Totl	0.692055

Figure 16: Social Support Supervisor

Factor Loadings (Varimax normalized)
Extraction: Principal components
(Marked loadings are > .600000)

	Factor 1
SSUP1	-0.85275
SSUP2	-0.85535
SSUP3	-0.82187
SSUP4	-0.84583
SSUP5	-0.67426
EXPL VAR	3.304317
Prp. Totl	0.660863

Figure 17: Social Support Colleagues

Factor Loadings (Varimax normalized)
Extraction: Principal components
(Marked loadings are > .700000)

	Factor 1
SCOL1	-0.78592
SCOL2	-0.8572
SCOL3	-0.81471
SCOL4	-0.79708
SCOL5	-0.72083
EXPL VAR	3.171136
Prp. Totl	0.634227

APPENDIX 4: T-TESTS

Table 1. T-Tests for Independent Samples (bolded values significant)

Variables	Mean-Poor	Mean-Below Ave	T-value	df	p	Valid N	Valid N	F-Ratio	P variances
JS-4 item	2.30555556	2.350877	-0.307917	115	0.758702	60	57	1.250303	0.401464
JS-1 item	2.576271	2.719298	-0.690224	114	0.491456	59	57	1.177674	0.537853
Comm	4.333333	4.140351	1.281679	115	0.202533	60	57	1.508979	0.120598
TO	2.808333	2.684211	1.080480	115	0.282189	60	57	1.162396	0.572112
TV	2.861111	2.935673	-0.672896	115	0.502363	60	57	1.298291	0.326925
DA	2.671429	2.654135	0.185179	115	0.853415	60	57	1.535292	0.105871
TP	2.923810	2.832080	1.009062	115	0.315064	60	57	1.373502	0.233569
PE	3.387500	3.250000	1.204534	115	0.230856	60	57	1.155954	0.586424
ER	2.856667	3.031579	-1.49539	115	0.137551	60	57	1.096093	0.731038
RA	2.470833	2.587719	-0.878948	115	0.381262	60	57	1.524395	0.114104
SA	3.045833	2.956140	0.686829	115	0.493573	60	57	1.550779	0.100217
I	3.073333	3.098246	-0.221383	115	0.825186	60	57	1.951295	0.012755
INSEC	2.116667	2.166667	-0.424665	115	0.671875	60	57	1.140478	0.621813
P	**1.797222**	**2.055556**	-2.67238	115	**0.008626**	60	57	1.160970	0.575258
T	3.090395	3.198830	-0.805248	114	0.422353	59	57	1.039651	0.885066
SMAN	2.383333	2.364035	0.130009	115	0.896786	60	57	1.453579	0.160662
SSUP	2.666667	2.701754	-0.260764	115	0.794741	60	57	1.784823	0.030495
SCOL	2.746667	2.712281	0.283794	115	0.777078	60	57	1.712077	0.044404
ACO	3.000000	3.059649	-0.319023	115	0.750288	60	57	1.806516	0.027242
CCO	2.941667	3.099415	-0.820114	115	0.413848	60	57	1.580857	0.086321
NCO	2.655556	2.994152	-1.60862	115	0.110442	60	57	1.460509	0.155438

Key: **JS**=Job Satisfaction; **Comm**=Commitment; **TO**=Turnover Intention; **TV**=Task Variety; **DA**=Decision Authority; **TP**=Time Pressure; **PE**=Physical Exertion **ER**=Environmental Risk; **RA**=Role Ambiguity; **SA**=Student Aggression; **I**=Involvement; **Insec**=Insecurity; **P**=Prospects; **T**=Training; **Sman**=Support Management; **Ssup**=Social Support Supervisor; **Scol**= Social Support Colleagues; **Aco**=Affective Commit; **Cco**=Continuance Commit; **Nco**=normative Commit

APPENDIX 5: CORRELATION ANALYSIS

Table 1. Full Sample (**marked values significant**)

	SAT	JS-3item	TO	COMM	ACO	CCO	NCO
SAT-I item	1	**0.22**	-0.03	**0.22**	0.13	0.05	0.15
JS-3 item	**0.22**	1	-0.18	**0.19**	**0.32**	**0.21**	**0.27**
TO	-0.03	-0.18	1	0.01	-0.06	0.06	-0.12
COMM	**0.22**	**0.19**	0.01	1	0.18	0.06	**0.21**
ACO	0.13	**0.32**	-0.06	0.18	1	**0.67**	**0.63**
CCO	0.05	**0.21**	0.06	0.06	**0.67**	1	**0.67**
NCO	0.15	**0.27**	-0.12	**0.21**	**0.63**	**0.67**	1
TV	**0.29**	**0.23**	-0.01	0.14	**0.24**	0.1	**0.23**
DA	**0.32**	**0.24**	0.05	0.15	**0.22**	0.12	0.14
TP	-0.12	0.03	**0.28**	-0.03	0.05	0.11	-0.08
PE	-0.12	-0.08	**0.43**	-0.03	-0.04	0.02	-0.05
ER	**-0.31**	-0.11	**0.3**	-0.06	0.05	**0.19**	-0.06
RA	**-0.24**	-0.06	0.09	-0.14	-0.16	0.02	-0.04
SA	-0.13	-0.09	**0.26**	-0.09	-0.07	-0.09	-0.14
I	-0.07	**0.23**	**0.21**	0.02	**0.24**	**0.22**	0.12
INSEC	0.01	0	0.07	-0.08	0.11	0.17	0.08
P	**0.32**	**0.2**	**-0.27**	0.11	**0.27**	**0.2**	**0.42**
T	0.02	0.03	0.06	0.09	0.16	**0.19**	**0.23**
SMAN	**0.29**	**0.29**	-0.09	**0.24**	**0.33**	**0.21**	**0.29**
SSUP	**0.35**	**0.23**	0.04	**0.19**	**0.34**	0.13	**0.23**
SCOL	**0.22**	**0.35**	-0.08	0.14	**0.37**	**0.22**	**0.33**

Key: **SAT**= 1 item Job Satisfaction; **JS**= 3 – item Job Satisfaction; **Comm**=Commitment; **TO**=Turnover Intention; **TV**=Task Variety; **DA**=Decision Authority; **TP**=Time Pressure; **PE**=Physical Exertion **ER**=Environmental Risk; **RA**=Role Ambiguity; **SA**=Student Aggression; **I**=Involvement/meaningfulness; **Insec**=Insecurity; **P**=Prospects; **T**=Training; **Sman**=Support Management; **Ssup**=Social Support Supervisor; **Scol**= Social Support Colleagues; **Aco**=Affective Commit; **Cco**=Continuance Commit; **Nco**=normative Commit

Table 2. Poor Sample (**marked values significant**)

	SAT	JS-3 item	TO	COMM	ACO	CCO	NCO
SAT-1 item	1	0.17	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.11
JS-3 item	0.17	1	-0.04	0.16	0.21	0.24	**0.31**
TO	0.03	-0.04	1	0.17	0.02	0.12	-0.06
COMM	0.03	0.16	0.17	1	0.03	-0.07	0.05
ACO	0.03	0.21	0.02	0.03	1	**0.71**	**0.72**
CCO	0.03	0.24	0.12	-0.07	**0.71**	1	**0.75**
NCO	0.11	**0.31**	-0.06	0.05	**0.72**	**0.75**	1
TV	**0.32**	0.17	-0.15	0.11	0.2	0.1	0.24
DA	**0.27**	0.12	0.17	-0.02	0.07	0.04	0.06
TP	-0.07	0.14	0.11	0.01	-0.03	0.07	0.01
PE	-0.03	0	**0.37**	0.03	-0.08	0.01	-0.06
ER	-0.23	0.1	**0.38**	0.02	0.14	0.22	-0.09
RA	**-0.27**	-0.06	0.1	-0.07	-0.14	0.03	-0.07
SA	-0.1	-0.11	0.21	-0.06	-0.05	-0.12	-0.19
I	-0.02	0.24	**0.32**	-0.11	**0.28**	0.25	0.12
INSEC	0.09	0.1	0.16	-0.12	0.18	0.22	0.2
P	0.23	0.21	**-0.27**	0.03	**0.32**	**0.31**	**0.47**
T	0.06	0.06	0.01	0.02	0.24	0.2	**0.31**
SMAN	**0.28**	**0.27**	-0.05	**0.26**	0.23	0.18	**0.29**
SSUP	**0.38**	0.13	-0.03	0.12	**0.31**	0.1	0.22
SCOL	0.23	**0.4**	-0.19	0.06	**0.47**	**0.27**	**0.47**

Key: **SAT**= 1 item Job Satisfaction; **JS**= 3 – item Job Satisfaction; **Comm**=Commitment; **TO**=Turnover Intention; **TV**=Task Variety; **DA**=Decision Authority; **TP**=Time Pressure; **PE**=Physical Exertion **ER**=Environmental Risk; **RA**=Role Ambiguity; **SA**=Student Aggression; **I**=Involvement/meaningfulness; **Insec**=Insecurity; **P**=Prospects; **T**=Training; **Sman**=Support Management; **Ssup**=Social Support Supervisor; **Scol**= Social Support Colleagues; **Aco**=Affective Commit; **Cco**=Continuance Commit; **Nco**=normative Commit

Table 3. Below Average Sample (**marked values significant**)

	SAT	JS-3item	TO	COMM	ACO	CCO	NCO
SAT-1 item	1	**0.35**	-0.16	**0.42**	**0.32**	0.11	0.21
JS-3 item	**0.35**	1	-0.23	0.22	**0.43**	0.12	0.16
TO	-0.16	-0.23	1	-0.11	-0.08	0.07	-0.08
COMM	**0.42**	0.22	-0.11	1	**0.34**	0.2	**0.41**
ACO	**0.32**	**0.43**	-0.08	**0.34**	1	**0.6**	**0.48**
CCO	0.11	0.12	0.07	0.2	**0.6**	1	**0.53**
NCO	0.21	0.16	-0.08	**0.41**	**0.48**	**0.53**	1
TV	**0.31**	0.24	**0.27**	0.17	0.25	0.06	0.15
DA	**0.4**	**0.34**	0	0.26	**0.37**	0.21	0.2
TP	-0.22	-0.03	**0.4**	-0.08	0.25	0.25	-0.14
PE	**-0.28**	-0.06	**0.4**	-0.08	0.11	0.11	0.1
ER	**-0.47**	**-0.33**	0.23	-0.09	-0.03	0.15	-0.04
RA	-0.22	-0.07	0.12	-0.19	-0.21	-0.01	-0.02
SA	-0.23	0.04	0.2	-0.12	-0.02	0.02	0.03
I	-0.12	0.2	0.13	0.17	0.14	0.16	0.08
INSEC	-0.1	-0.09	-0.06	-0.03	0.02	0.1	-0.08
P	**0.4**	0.22	**-0.28**	**0.27**	0.21	0.04	**0.35**
T	0.11	0.01	-0.05	-0.1	-0.15	-0.01	-0.1
SMAN	**0.35**	**0.29**	-0.1	0.22	**0.47**	0.23	**0.27**
SSUP	**0.35**	**0.36**	0.18	**0.28**	**0.37**	0.17	0.24
SCOL	0.25	**0.28**	0.08	0.23	0.2	0.13	0.12

Key: **SAT**= 1 item Job Satisfaction; **JS**= 3 – item Job Satisfaction; **Comm**=Commitment; **TO**=Turnover Intention; **TV**=Task Variety; **DA**=Decision Authority; **TP**=Time Pressure; **PE**=Physical Exertion **ER**=Environmental Risk; **RA**=Role Ambiguity; **SA**=Student Aggression; **I**=Involvement/meaningfulness; **Insec**=Insecurity; **P**=Prospects; **T**=Training; **Sman**=Support Management; **Ssup**=Social Support Supervisor; **Scol**= Social Support Colleagues; **Aco**=Affective Commit; **Cco**=Continuance Commit; **Nco**=normative Commit

APPENDIX 6: MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS

Full Sample

Figure 1: Dependent Variable: Job Satisfaction (3- item measure)
(Significant Results)

R= .34813666 **R^2= .12119913** Adjusted
R^2=.11355739
F(1,115)=15.860 p<.00012 Std.Error of estimate: .74630

		St. Err.		St. Err.		
N=117	**BETA**	**of BETA**	**B**	**of B**	**t(96)**	**p-level**
Intercpt			1.173068	0.298009	3.936353	0.000142
SCOL	**0.348137**	**0.087417**	**0.422932**	**0.106198**	**3.982479**	**0.00012**

Figure 2: Dependent Variable: Job Satisfaction (1- item measure)

R= .47357036 **R^2= .22426889** Adjusted
R^2=.20367426

F(3,113)=10.890 p<.00000 Std.Error of estimate: 1.0129

		St. Err.		St. Err.		
N=117	**BETA**	**of BETA**	**B**	**of B**	**t(96)**	**p-level**
Intercpt			2.001152	0.693621	2.88508	0.004688
SSUP	**0.254513**	**0.088055**	**0.398709**	**0.137943**	**2.89039**	**0.004615**
ER	**-0.23305**	**0.085102**	**-0.4161**	**0.151941**	**-2.73853**	**0.007172**
P	**0.190862**	**0.088943**	**0.403959**	**0.188248**	**2.14589**	**0.034022**

Figure 3: Dependent Variable Turnover Intention

R= .47075709 **R^2= .22161224** Adjusted R^2= .20795631
F(2,114)=16.228 p<.00000 Std.Error of estimate: .55315

		St. Err.		St. Err.		
N=117	**BETA**	**of BETA**	**B**	**of B**	**t(96)**	**p-level**
Intercpt			1.832288	0.373150	4.91032	0.000003
PE	**0.397165**	**0.084434**	**0.399202**	**0.084867**	**4.70383**	**0.000007**
P	**-0.183952**	**0.084434**	**-0.213190**	**0.097855**	**-2.17864**	**0.031417**

Figure 4: Dependent Variable Commitment (1- item measure)

R= .24487332 **R^2= .05996294** Adjusted R^2= .05178871
F(1,115)=7.3356 p<.00779 Std.Error of estimate: .79490

		St. Err.		St. Err.		
N=117	**BETA**	**of BETA**	**B**	**of B**	**t(96)**	**p-level**
Intercpt			3.645500	0.231236	15.76530	0.000000
SMAN	**0.244873**	**0.090411**	**0.250141**	**0.092356**	**2.70843**	**0.007793**

Poor Sample

Figure 5: Dependent Variable: Job Satisfaction (3- item measure)
(Significant Results)

R= .39736635 **R^2= .15790001** Adjusted R^2= .14312633
F(1,57)=10.688 p<.00183 Std.Error of estimate: .75397

		St. Err.		St. Err.		
N=59	**BETA**	**of BETA**	**B**	**of B**	**t(57)**	**p-level**
Intercpt			1.075940	0.380221	2.829779	0.006421
SCOL	**0.397366**	**0.121547**	**0.437904**	**0.133947**	**3.269239**	**0.001831**

Figure 6: Dependent Variable: Job Satisfaction (1- item measure)

R= .45980848 **R^2= .21142384** Adjusted R^2= .18326041
F(2,56)=7.5070 p<.00129 Std.Error of estimate: .99667

		St. Err.		St. Err.		
N=59	**BETA**	**of BETA**	**B**	**of B**	**t(56)**	**p-level**
Intercpt						
SSUP	**0.333642**	**0.121094**	**0.446186**	**0.161940**	**2.755244**	**0.007898**
TV	**0.256836**	**0.121094**	**0.454530**	**0.214303**	**2.120970**	**0.038365**

Figure 7: Dependent Variable Turnover Intention

R= .38029338 **R^2= .14462306** Adjusted R^2= .12961644
F(1,57)=9.6373 p<.00297 Std.Error of estimate: .56265

		St. Err.		St. Err.		
N=59	**BETA**	**of BETA**	**B**	**of B**	**t(57)**	**p-level**
Intercpt			1.820922	0.336022	5.419049	0.000001
ER	**0.380293**	**0.122501**	**0.354997**	**0.114353**	**3.104398**	**0.002967**

Figure 8: Dependent Variable Commitment (1- item measure)

R= .26425417 **R²= .06983027** Adjusted R²= .05351150
F(1,57)=4.2791 p<.04313 Std.Error of estimate: .70989

		St. Err.		St. Err.		
N=59	**BETA**	**of BETA**	**B**	**of B**	**t(57)**	**p-level**
Intercpt			3.797922	0.269694	14.08232	0.000000
SMAN	**0.264254**	**0.127745**	**0.221271**	**0.106966**	**2.06861**	**0.043130**

Below Average Sample

Figure 9: Dependent Variable: Job Satisfaction (3- item measure)

R= .47831261 **R²= .22878296** Adjusted R²= .20021936
F(2,54)=8.0096 p<.00090 Std.Error of estimate: .66995

		St. Err.		St. Err.		
N=57	**BETA**	**of BETA**	**B**	**of B**	**t(96)**	**p-level**
Intercpt			2.348201	0.611332	3.84112	0.000324
SSUP	**0.348416**	**0.119645**	**0.424914**	**0.145915**	**2.91207**	**0.005210**
ER	**-0.311346**	**0.119645**	**-0.377802**	**0.145184**	**-2.60224**	**0.011930**

Figure 10: Dependent Variable: Job Satisfaction (1- item measure)

R= .66994163 **R²= .44882179** Adjusted R²= .40642347
F(4,52)=10.586 p<.00000 Std.Error of estimate: .89463

		St. Err.		St. Err.		
N=57	**BETA**	**of BETA**	**B**	**of B**	**t (52)**	**p-level**
Intercpt			3.424687	1.191112	2.87520	0.005839
ER	**-0.383122**	**0.106242**	**-0.720621**	**0.199833**	**-3.60612**	**0.000697**
SSUP	**0.371807**	**0.107662**	**0.702858**	**0.203523**	**3.45346**	**0.001109**
P	**0.275388**	**0.106643**	**0.636618**	**0.246528**	**2.58233**	**0.012669**
I	**-0.239598**	**0.107143**	**-0.557839**	**0.249454**	**-2.23624**	**0.029652**

Figure 11: Dependent Variable Turnover Intention

R= .40312085 **R²= .16250642** Adjusted R²= .14727927
F(1,55)=10.672 p<.00188 Std.Error of estimate: .55104

		St. Err.		St. Err.		
N=57	**BETA**	**of BETA**	**B**	**of B**	**t(55)**	**p-level**
Intercpt			1.367755	0.409533	3.339788	0.001511
PE	**0.403121**	**0.123398**	**0.405063**	**0.123993**	**3.266825**	**0.001876**

Figure 12: Dependent Variable Commitment (1- item measure)

R= .27882282 **R^2= .07774217** Adjusted R^2= .06097384
F(1,55)=4.6363 p<.03570 Std.Error of estimate: .86748

		St. Err.		St. Err.		
N=57	**BETA**	**of BETA**	**B**	**of B**	**t(55)**	**p-level**
Intercpt			3.042511	0.522652	5.821297	0.000000
SSUP	**0.278823**	**0.129493**	**0.406343**	**0.188716**	**2.153196**	**0.035704**

APPENDIX 7: Research Survey

Teacher-Specific Version of the Leiden Quality of Work Life Survey (LQWQ)

Welcome to the Leiden Teacher Quality of Work Life Survey. We appreciate your participation and hope that this survey is interesting for you. This survey asks questions about your job; your satisfaction with work; work stressors; how you respond to these stressors, as well as some things about you as a person.

Your participation is very important in this survey as we are trying to find out how teachers from previously disadvantaged schools experience their jobs. **All your answers to these questions are completely confidential**. Only the researchers from the University of Cape Town will have access to your responses and no individual respondent to this survey will ever be identified in any report based on this survey.

To protect your privacy, please do not place your name on any part of this survey.

We hope that you will participate and answer the survey questions in an honest and frank manner. **Please note this survey will take approximately 20 minutes to complete. Thanks you for your cooperation.**

If you have any questions about this survey, or your rights as a participant in it, please contact Paul Leibowitz or Suki Goodman at the University of Cape Town, Rondebosch, Cape Town. Paul Leibowitz can be contacted on 072 3290153 and Suki Goodman on 650 3778.

Your Background

1. What is your gender?

- ❑ Male
- ❑ Female

2. What is your age?

- ❑ 18-20
- ❑ 21-25
- ❑ 26-30
- ❑ 31-35
- ❑ 36-40
- ❑ 41-45
- ❑ 46-50
- ❑ 51 or older

3. What is your marital status?

- ❑ Single
- ❑ Married or living together
- ❑ Divorced or separated
- ❑ Widowed

4. What are your qualifications?

- ❑ Std 8
- ❑ Matric
- ❑ Teachers diploma
- ❑ HDE
- ❑ B.ED
- ❑ Other…Please specify:

5. How long have you worked for this school?

- ❑ Less than one year
- ❑ 1-5 years
- ❑ 5-10 years
- ❑ More than 10 years

6. How long have you worked as a teacher?

- ❑ Less than one year

- ❑ 1-5 years
- ❑ 5-10 years
- ❑ More than 10 years

7. What subject area do you teach?

- ❑ Languages
- ❑ Maths/science/biology/history
- ❑ Art
- ❑ Other

8. Home language:

- ❑ English
- ❑ Xhosa
- ❑ Afrikaans
- ❑ Other
- ❑ I prefer not to answer

9. How satisfied are you with your current job?

- ❑ Very dissatisfied
- ❑ Dissatisfied
- ❑ Neutral
- ❑ Satisfied
- ❑ Very satisfied

10. Overall, how committed are you towards the school in which you currently work?

- ❑ Very uncommitted
- ❑ Uncommitted
- ❑ Neutral
- ❑ Committed
- ❑ Very committed

11. How competent do you think you are performing your job?

- ❑ Need a great deal of improvement
- ❑ Need some improvement
- ❑ Competent
- ❑ Very competent
- ❑ Highly competent

	TEACHER QUALITY OF WORK LIFE SURVEY ***The following questions concern your work and your opinion on your work*** **Can you please answer all questions by marking one box per question**	**Strongly Disagree**	**Disagree**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**
1	I often don't feel like going to work	1	2	3	4
2	If I had to choose again, I would still become a teacher again	1	2	3	4
3	Being a teacher is the best profession there is	1	2	3	4
4	I enjoy my work as a teacher	1	2	3	4
5	I'm not sure whether I can carry on in this job until my retirement	1	2	3	4
6	If the opportunity arises, I would like to work at another school	1	2	3	4
7	There is a fair chance that I will look for another job next year	1	2	3	4
8	If the opportunity arose, I would quit the teaching profession	1	2	3	4
9	My job involves a variety of tasks	1	2	3	4
10	The teaching profession is challenging to me	1	2	3	4
11	I have to teach the same courses year after year	1	2	3	4
12	In my job as a teacher I can develop my own talents and interests	1	2	3	4
13	I have limited influence on the final attainment level	1	2	3	4
14	At my school meetings with colleagues are held regularly	1	2	3	4
15	In the process of educational innovations the teachers are asked for their opinion	1	2	3	4
16	I can influence the interior of my classrooms	1	2	3	4
17	I get consulted when educational material for the courses I teach are purchased	1	2	3	4
18	I can choose the educational method I want to use in my courses	1	2	3	4
19	The management of this school takes propositions and suggestions of the teachers into consideration before taking decisions	1	2	3	4

1= strongly disagree; 2 = disagree; 3 = agree; 4 = strongly agree

20	I have limited time to prepare my classes	1	2	3	4
21	The teaching programme is overloaded	1	2	3	4
22	There is practically no time left to keep up to date with regard to my teaching	1	2	3	4
23	I lack the time to counsel individual students	1	2	3	4
24	I need more time to do my job as a teacher well	1	2	3	4
25	My teaching profession claims a lot of my leisure time	1	2	3	4
26	My work is never finished	1	2	3	4
27	I am often tired after work	1	2	3	4
28	Teaching is a physically tiring profession	1	2	3	4
29	I often have to stand for long periods of time	1	2	3	4
30	The teaching profession requires a lot of physical effort	1	2	3	4
31	We lack teaching materials of good quality	1	2	3	4
32	The climatological conditions (coldness, heat, lack of fresh air, humidity) in our school are bad	1	2	3	4
33	The schoolrooms are anything but soundproof	1	2	3	4
34	The building I teach in, has annoying shortcomings	1	2	3	4
35	The interior of the building fits educational methods I use nicely	1	2	3	4
36	I know exactly what my direct supervisor expects of me	1	2	3	4
37	When I encounter problems with my students it is not clear what I may and may not do	1	2	3	4
38	At this school it is not clear how far my duty as a teacher goes	1	2	3	4
39	In this school it is not clear what is expected of a teacher	1	2	3	4
40	In this school it is not clear on which criteria one is being evaluated as a teacher	1	2	3	4
41	Students behave aggressively in this school	1	2	3	4
42	During my courses I constantly have to keep an eye on a number of difficult students	1	2	3	4

1= strongly disagree; 2 = disagree; 3 = agree; 4 = strongly agree

43	In my school teachers are approached aggressively by their students	1	2	3	4
44	Keeping order is hard at this school	1	2	3	4
45	I think that my students will think back on my courses with pleasure later on in life	1	2	3	4
46	I get a lot in return from my students	1	2	3	4
47	I think that I do valuable work as a teacher	1	2	3	4
48	I feel involved with my students	1	2	3	4
49	The welfare of my students concerns me	1	2	3	4
50	During the past year, I had a risk of losing my job	1	2	3	4
51	I expect to be fired within the next five years	1	2	3	4
52	It is questionable whether I will keep my current number of teaching classes in the future	1	2	3	4
53	Every school year it is uncertain how many teaching hours I will get	1	2	3	4
54	As a teacher one can never really get higher-up	1	2	3	4
55	As a teacher one has limited prospects for career development and promotion	1	2	3	4
56	The teaching profession is undervalued in this society	1	2	3	4
57	My prospects for career development and promotion are good	1	2	3	4
58	Being a teacher one can always find a job	1	2	3	4
59	Teachers are underpaid	1	2	3	4
60	My job requires that I undergo further training	1	2	3	4
61	My job requires that I am familiar with educational innovations	1	2	3	4
62	My job requires that I am continuously refreshing my knowledge on my teaching subject	1	2	3	4
63	The school management pays attention to what I say	1	2	3	4
64	I experience a lot of support from the school management	1	2	3	4
65	The school management has a stimulating influence in the social relations within this school	1	2	3	4

1= strongly disagree; 2 = disagree; 3 = agree; 4 = strongly agree

66	The school management looks after my interests outside the school as well	1	2	3	4
67	My direct supervisor pays attention to what I say	1	2	3	4
68	I can ask my direct supervisor for help when I have problems at work	1	2	3	4
69	When in contact with others (parents, school, management) my direct supervisor looks after my interests	1	2	3	4
70	My direct supervisor values the work that I do	1	2	3	4
71	My direct supervisor sticks to what has been agreed upon	1	2	3	4
72	I can ask colleagues for help when I have problems at work	1	2	3	4
73	I feel that my colleagues value the work I do	1	2	3	4
74	In the process of educational innovation I experience a lot of support from my colleagues	1	2	3	4
75	At my school colleagues stick to what has been agreed upon	1	2	3	4
76	At my school colleagues get on together well	1	2	3	4

ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

With respect to your own feelings about the particular organization for which you are now working, please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by circling a number from 1 to 5		STRONGLY DISAGREE	DISAGREE	NOT SURE	AGREE	STRONGLY AGREE
1	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organisation	1	2	3	4	5
2	I really feel as if this organisation's problems are my own	1	2	3	4	5
3	I feel a strong sense of "belonging" to this organisation	1	2	3	4	5
4	I feel "emotionally attached" to this organisation	1	2	3	4	5
5	I feel like "part of the family" at this organisation	1	2	3	4	5
6	This organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me	1	2	3	4	5
7	Right now, staying with this organisation is a matter of necessity as much as desire	1	2	3	4	5
8	It would be very hard for me to leave this organisation right now, even if I wanted to	1	2	3	4	5
9	Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided (that) I wanted to leave this organisation now	1	2	3	4	5
10	I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organisation	1	2	3	4	5
11	If I had not already put so much of myself into this organisation, I might consider working elsewhere	1	2	3	4	5
12	One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organisation would be the scarcity of available alternatives	1	2	3	4	5
13	I feel an obligation to remain with my current employee	1	2	3	4	5
14	Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organisation now	1	2	3	4	5
`15	I would feel guilty if I left my organisation now	1	2	3	4	5
16	This organisation deserves my loyalty	1	2	3	4	5
17	I would not leave this organisation right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it	1	2	3	4	5
18	I owe a great deal to my organisation	1	2	3	4	5

This is your space.

Please use it to tell us more about yourself, your work experiences, your job, or anything else that you think would be useful to us in understanding your situation.

Thank you for participating in this survey!

APPENDIX 8

Informed Consent

Paul Leibowitz a Master's student at the University of Cape Town is administering this survey. The study is concerned with understanding how teachers from disadvantaged schools experience their jobs i.e. their quality of work lives (QWL). You will be asked to rate the extent to which you agree or disagree with a number of questions all addressing different aspects of QWL, such as stress and your working environments. The survey will take approximately 20-30 minutes to complete.

There are no known risks or dangers to you associated with this study. The researcher will not attempt to identify you as an individual with your responses, or to name you as a participant in the study, nor will they facilitate anyone else's doing so.

As in any study your participation is strictly voluntary and you may withdraw at any time simply by telling the researcher that you wish to do so. If you have any questions about what you will be doing, feel free to ask now or whenever questions arise. If you have any questions later you can contact Paul Leibowitz at Leibo@mweb.co.za or 021-4346917.

I acknowledge that I am participating in this study of my own free will. I understand that I may refuse to participate or stop participating at anytime without penalty.

Signature_____ Date_____

APPENDIX 9

LETTER TO SCHOOLS

SUBJECT: RESEARCH PROJECT

My name is Paul Leibowitz and I am currently an organisational psychology masters student at the University of Cape Town. At the moment I am in the process of contacting various schools in Cape Town with a view to conducting research within them. My thesis topic is ' an investigation into the quality of work life of teachers from disadvantaged schools in the Cape Town area'. Quality of work life is a similar yet more comprehensive concept then job satisfaction, but its measurement follows a similar process. I will be assessing teachers' quality of work life by means of a questionnaire, which will take 15-20 minutes to complete. I have sent you an example of what the questionnaire may look like, although the exact survey to be used is still in the process of being finalised. I strongly believe the research holds much value in that it should shed light on teachers' experiences at work and will also highlight differences in teachers' experiences across previously disadvantaged schools. Research within previously disadvantaged schools is not nearly as prevalent as it should be and so I believe my research will be very informative and beneficial.

I hope you will consider allowing me to conduct my research at your school, which would take place in the third term. Agreeing to do so does not imply that teachers have to participate it would still be voluntary. In addition I can guarantee that all information received will be held private and confidential yet upon completion of the research should you want a copy of the final draft I will ensure that you receive one. I will contact you soon hopefully with the possibility of setting up a meeting to discuss my proposal further.

Thanks and regards
Paul Leibowitz

Contact: 021-4346917/ 0723290153